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BY
ESTHER COPLEY

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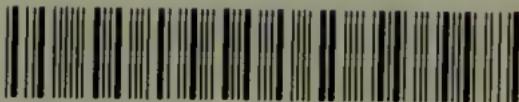


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COOKERY

1862



ESTHER COBLEY.

THE COMPLETE
COTTAGE COOKERY,

BY ESTHER COPLEY,

AUTHOR OF "COTTAGE COMFORTS," "CATECHISM OF DOMESTIC ECONOMY," ETC. ETC.

WITH PREFATORY CHAPTER BY HER DAUGHTER,

AND

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF THE AUTHOR.

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF MRS. COPLEY.

AMONG the numerous writers who, during the past half century, have extensively aided in promoting the best interests of society, by their earnest advocacy of right principles, and especially by their persevering efforts to ameliorate and raise the moral and social condition of the poor, few are more worthy of honourable mention than Esther Copley.

Mrs. Copley was the youngest daughter of Peter Benzeville, Esq., of Hackney, a lineal descendant of a family of French protestants, who, by the persecutions following the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, were, with thousands of fellow-sufferers, driven to take refuge in England. Mr. Benzeville, having secured an honourable competency as a silk manufacturer, retired from business, and eventually settled at Henley-on-Thames, where the subsequent years of his daughter were past till her marriage, in 1809, with the Rev. J. P. Hewlett, a highly respected clergyman of the Established Church. This union was dissolved in 1819, by the death of Mr. Hew-

lett; and many years afterwards, the widow became the wife of the Rev. W. Copley.

In early life, Mrs. Copley gave evidence of superior literary ability and better than this, of the firm and undeviating religious principle which distinguished her through life. The literature of thirty or forty years ago was, as is, unhappily, that of the present day, debased by infidelity, irreligion, and puerility. The young and the poor were especially exposed to the demoralising influence of an unchristian press, while those who had their true welfare at heart, to counteract that influence, were comparatively few and feeble. This was seen and deplored by our friend; and her position, as the wife of an active clergyman in a populous city, and surrounded by no small amount of ignorance and misery, by enlarging her sphere of observation and influence, urged her on to employ her talents in that department of literature to which, in a great measure, her future life was devoted.

We have said that such efforts were *comparatively* few and feeble. Some others had preceded Mrs. Hewlett in directing their efforts and energies to this quarter,—especially Mrs. Hannah More, whose writings exercised extensive influence, and commanded great popularity. But much more was needed; and the result proved our friend to be no incompetent fellow-labourer with that lady, whose day of activity was nearly over.

The first publications on which she ventured were

several small works for the young, and others in vindication of religion, or exposure of vice or infidelity, for adults in the middle and lower classes.

Encouraged by success, which she scarcely anticipated, Mrs. Hewlett projected and carried on the publication of two cheap magazines, the *Sunday Scholar's Magazine* for the young, and the *Christian Gleaner*, intended especially for domestic servants. If not the first, these were among the earliest of the cheap serials, which since that time have done, and are still doing, so great a service to the cause of general and religious information.

While conducting these periodicals, Mrs. Hewlett found other occupation for her pen, especially in a work which up to the present time has been very extensively circulated, and has been, and is, eminently useful in other classes of society as well as in that for which it was originally designed. *Cottage Comforts, with Hints for Promoting them*, is one of the most practical and unexceptionable directories for cottage life that was ever written. This work has been repeatedly revised and corrected by the author, and has passed through twenty or more editions; and we commend it the more strenuously to our readers because, as we understand, it is the only literary work from the same hand in which Mrs. Copley's family retain any beneficiary interest.

Other works of sterling value were subsequently written by Mrs. Hewlett, during her widowhood, and after

she became widely known as Mrs. Esther Copley. Among these, are a *Scripture History* and *Scripture Natural History* for the young, *Scripture Biography*, *Sacred History*, a useful school-book, a *History of Slavery*, on which subject Mrs. Copley brought to bear the resources of strong and ardent mind, deeply imbued with sympathy for the oppressed, and burning with indignation at the wrongs they had been compelled to bear. She produced also an essay on Covetousness; several works on theology and Scripture, which were published anonymously, and tales and other smaller books for the young.

But popular as Mrs. Copley had gradually become as an author, the greater part of her writings were published without the *prestige* of her name; and our reader will probably be surprised to learn how actively and industriously her pen was employed, and how varied were the subjects which engaged it. For nearly thirty years up to the time of her death she was almost constantly occupied in connexion with the Religious Tract Society, in which she found a congenial sphere for the exercise of her useful talents, and whose *general* rule prohibits the acknowledgment of the names of living writers. Among the works written by Mrs. Copley for this Society, are many volumes bearing upon the duties and several relationships of *Domestic Life*, including one under that specific title, another called the *Family Book*; others, *The Young Wife*, *The Young Mother*, *The Master and Mistress*, *Female Excellence*, *The Faithful Servant*, *The Young Servant*, *The Working Man's Wife*, *The Careful*

Nursemaid, and Useful Lads. To her pen, also, the public are indebted for *Uncle Barnaby, Rose and Crown Lane, Hints to the Charitable, The Girls' Week-day Book, The Lads of the Factory*, and its fellow volume, *The Young Women of the Factory.* Mothers and children who have been equally indebted for assistance and pleasant instruction to such works as *Mothers' First Lesson Book*, and *Mamma and her Child*, have obtained that help and pleasure from the same source, while in the *Life of Lady Russell*, and *Papal Errors*, is seen the reflection of Mrs. Copley's mind, as a staunch, ardent, and efficient advocate of the broad principles of civil and religious liberty. Of her smaller works, published by the same Society, may be mentioned *Mothers Encouraged, Servants and Places, The Two Cottagers, The Pussing Bell, Sabbaths in Seclusion, Hints to Christian Females on Dress, To Girls on Dress, Common Delusions, Sarah and her Mistress*, while her tracts and small children's books are too numerous to be specified. Among others, also, in whose spiritual welfare she felt a deep interest, were young females exposed to temptations, or who had fallen into sin;—to warn, guide, and restore them, Mrs. Copley wrote a few tracts, which are included in the list of publications sent forth by the Religious Tract Society for the benefit of this class of persons.

Mrs. Copley was also a frequent and valuable contributor to the pages of the earlier volumes of the *Family Economist*, and the *Catechism of Domestic Economy* proceeded from her pen.

Mrs. Copley's career of life-long usefulness as a public writer, and in the more retired walks of active benevolence, friendship, and private family intercourse and affection, was suddenly arrested by the illness which rapidly terminated in her lamented death on the 17th of July, 1851, at Eythorne, in Kent, in the sixty-fifth year of her age.

PREFATORY CHAPTER.

THAT this little work has been acceptable in a large number of our Cottage Homes, is fully proved by the extensive sale which it has obtained; and in offering another edition to the public, we can only express our hope that this and similar instructions may benefit the large class whose want of proficiency in the art of which it treats is the cause of so much evil.

Such knowledge is a part of the proper education of every working-man's daughter, and will serve better to keep poverty from the cottage door than all the sums of money that ever have been, or can be, expended in gifts or charities.

We say such knowledge is a part of the proper education of a working-man's *daughter*, because it is better that it should be acquired by a young person while in the home of her childhood, than by a wife. Here, however, the saying holds good,—“Better late than never;” and those who have become wives without any knowledge of the management of domestic affairs, will do wisely to avail themselves of the instructions which, in various ways, are now placed within their reach.

It is much to be regretted that so many young persons, even in the present day, should be allowed to grow up in utter ignorance of all that is likely to render a future home comfortable, and without any knowledge as

to how wisely to spend what the husband may have toiled very hard to earn.

In this respect, young females who, from the earliest days in which they are capable of doing anything, are engaged in factory employments (though not these alone) are very much to be pitied ; and unless, as they become wives, they conscientiously devote a little time and attention to the management of home, they cannot expect much better than to "muddle on" from day to day, living from hand to mouth, and bringing up their children to follow in the same way, never raising themselves in the scale of society, but more likely sinking to pauperism. Nine out of every ten cases of pauperism might be traced to the mis-spending of money rather than to the impossibility of earning it.

And how many thousands of instances are there where families, in what may be called genteel circumstances, that is, who by their occupation or profession are obliged to keep up certain appearances, pass a life of struggling embarrassment, because, in the early days of marriage, the wife, who had been to school and learnt a very great variety of things, had, however, no idea of how to purchase a single article for family consumption, nor yet how to cook or order the cooking of anything. Such ignorance leads to unintentional extravagance in a great variety of ways ; and the debts incurred, and the blunders committed, while experience is being dearly bought, often hang long and heavily over a family, making all the difference between struggling and ease.

At the same time, it is very plain that however capable a wife may be of laying out money to the best advantage, and of cooking provision in the best possible manner,

her capability will be of comparatively little advantage unless her husband will go hand in hand with her. What can a wife do, whose husband gives way to many personal indulgences, so that only a small portion of the week's earnings are placed within her reach for procuring family provisions? Her task is indeed a difficult one; and truly astonishing it is what some women, with good resolution and good management, have accomplished, even in such pitiable circumstances. But to attain comfort and independence in such a case is quite hopeless. That can only be accomplished by the mutual co-operation of husband and wife; by their forming some plan for their expenditure, and determining to live within their means, and endeavouring to lay by some trifle, however small, as a provision against accident, sickness, or old age.

Many tables of expenditure have been drawn out by those who have endeavoured to assist families in laying out their money to the best advantage. We do not, however, put such tables here, knowing that exactly how much is spent upon this or that article of food must depend upon localities and a great variety of other circumstances; for instance, some families are so situated as to be able to get a quart of nice milk for a penny every day, while others will have great difficulty in getting even a little tolerably good milk for a much greater charge. Where milk can be easily procured, it is the cheapest and most wholesome food that can be had for the same money. With regard to malt liquor, also, some families never use any, and think they are better without it, while others believe it necessary to their health to take a moderate portion of it daily. All these varieties of circumstance and habit make it difficult for any but the house-keeper interested to judge how much may properly be

spent upon separate articles ; but she can judge how much she may spend each week for food, house rent, clothing, and casualties. The sums allotted to each must vary with different families, according to the number of children ; but we hope every mother will remember that enough wholesome food is of more importance to her children than fine clothes.

Having once formed a good plan for spending the week's income, let the cottager be very careful that the plan is abided by. The only certain way of doing this is to pay for everything at the time of having it. If the cottager or his wife once allow their name to stand in a tradesman's books—even though they should mean it to be there for only a few days—they are not unlikely to find themselves entangled in a labyrinth that they will not easily get out of. The custom of taking credit by the week is very much practised in some districts. The cottager will carry goods from the shop with a promise, and no doubt an intention in most cases, of paying for them with the next week's wages. This plan may go on tolerably straight for a time ; but the purchaser, under such circumstances, is always in danger of ordering goods more freely than he would buy them with the money in his hand, so that, by and by, there is a difficulty in clearing up the week's score, and as soon as any unusual event occurs to make money scarce, the temptation of taking a second, and then a third week's credit is fallen into, and the result often is, that the shopkeeper loses his money and his customer. We need hardly say that such a plan of dealing as this is hurtful both to buyer and seller ; for a customer that has left a tradesman under such circumstances cannot feel like a thoroughly honest person, and in losing his own self-respect, he is even at a greater loss than the value of his debt.

One expense, for indulging in which a good housekeeper need never accuse herself of extravagance, is an account book, in which to put down the exact sums of money spent for every article bought. Never mind how little the sum, put it down. It will not be much trouble, or take much time, and it will be an almost certain check to any extravagance. We can sometimes blind our eyes to the folly of what we are doing, if it is to be done and forgotten; but if it is to be written down in black and white, to stand there and remind us of our folly, we are a great deal less likely to be guilty of it. Besides, a housekeeper will find it very pleasant to have it in her power to look back and see just what her expenses were at such or such times, and under such circumstances; and the book may be useful in shewing where she may improve her plan of laying out money. Here a cottager's wife will find how very useful to her is a knowledge of reading and writing. If this most necessary knowledge has not been acquired, by all means let it be set about. It is never too late to learn.

In all their arrangements, cottagers should bear in mind that *time* is too valuable to be wasted or needlessly used. And taking time into account, it may prove occasionally cheaper to pay a baker for cooking a piece of meat, or a jar of stew, or to let him bake the bread, than to pay time and attention to it at home.

We have in this volume given many useful directions as to procuring provisions, and to the mode of preparing good and wholesome food; and if a cottager's wife follows the advice here given, she will have done much towards promoting the health and comfort of her family: so far she will have done her part well.

But even when good food is procured and well cooked,

there is yet more that is necessary to be attended to before it can be enjoyed and made to produce that healthfulness and nourishment which it is capable of affording. Something more is needed than the mere act of swallowing it.

First of all, food should be taken at suitable times, and in this respect the cottager or labouring man is less in danger of erring than his more wealthy neighbour. The stated hours of labour necessitate a degree of regularity in the hours of meals. Some who have not occupations which necessarily employ their time, are apt to give way to habits of eating and drinking at all hours of the day ; thus beguiling time to be sure, but also indicating disease of mind and producing disease of body. A healthy stomach, like a good servant, likes to know what it has to do, and to have a proper time allowed to do it in, and not to be called off from the middle of one operation to attend to another, which may be said to be the case when food is too frequently and needlessly taken. Three, or at most four meals a day are as many as a healthy stomach requires.

Supposing that the cottager has well-cooked food and suitable times for eating it, what more can be necessary ? Why, that it should be served up in a cleanly, orderly manner,—a cleanly cloth upon the table, a dish for each sort of food, and a plate for each person. The present cheapness of earthenware and of such fabrics as serve for table cloths, puts these luxuries, if such they may be called, within the reach of every cottager.

Do not let comfortable good managing cottagers be offended at such a suggestion as this, and think that we wrong them in imagining that they are not in the habit

of using such articles. It was only a few days ago that we went, at dinner time, into a cottage whose inhabitants do not at all know what the pinchings of poverty are. At one corner of the table, without a cloth, was placed a rough platter, filled plentifully with pudding, meat, and vegetables ; near this dish sat father, mother, and son, each helping themselves as they chose. Now this was not because they did not possess all that might have made a dinner table very comfortable, but because they "would not be at the trouble of setting out such a lot of things." Such trouble is more than repaid by the cheerfulness and self-respect which it induces.

And to add to the comfort and enjoyment of a meal, why should not the cottager's two or three earthen dishes with their accompaniments, be placed as neatly and evenly upon the table as the complete china dinner service of the rich ? It takes no more time to place a thing with a little regard to appearance than to toss it down all awry, or just as it happens, upon the table ; it only needs a little aptitude of hand and eye.

We know very well that hundreds and even thousands of the inhabitants of our English cottage homes do enjoy the neat and orderly habits that we now recommend, but we know also of others who would say,—What a fuss about eating a meal ; why, if the food is eaten, it is eaten, and there is an end of it. Let any who would argue thus try only for one week the comfort of an orderly and well-arranged table, and see if the food so taken does not really do them more good, and if, indeed, they do not feel themselves to be altogether better persons. To see things neat and comfortable gives a feeling of mental satisfaction, which feeling, more than any sauce that was

ever invented, serves to sweeten the food, and assists it in nourishing and strengthening the body.

Another, and oft neglected requisite to our being able to receive from food all the good it may give us is, that it may be properly *masticated*, that is, made small by the use of the teeth before it is swallowed. While we are biting our food and moving it in our mouth, a saliva, which is an important assistant to digestion, is at the same time mixing itself with the food, and making it fit to enter the stomach. It is really painful to observe some persons who will swallow their food in lumps, and wash it down with frequent gulps of liquid, thus offering to the stomach an affront, which it is sure to resent with all the evils of indigestion. Bad eating causes as much indigestion as bad cooking.

But let no one misunderstand us, and suppose that we mean to recommend the habit of what we may call *indolent eating*. Persons may take a comfortable length of time over a meal without being idle over it. While engaged in biting food, it may be done in an active, industrious manner, and time will be thus afforded between whiles for a cheerful remark or two; and a few cheerful remarks, or a little pleasant conversation, will be found greatly to assist the enjoyment and consequently the usefulness of a meal. But *indolent eating* does no good any way. It does not sufficiently excite the saliva to assist digestion as it should; and if it is painful to an observer to see the food bolted, it certainly is not less painful to witness the slow and unenergetic manner in which some people use their mouths: there is no movement in nature or art which we can just now think of with which to compare it. And we might have been at a loss to understand why any one ever should eat their food in such a

manner, had not the reason been thus explained to us? We had occasion to hire, as domestic help, a cottager's daughter, who had assisted and learnt at a third or fourth-rate boarding school. We were distressed to observe the almost inanimate movement of her mouth, and kindly reproved her for it. The answer explained it all: "It is not genteel to eat fast." Oh, gentility! When will it be genteel for young women to be active in everything, and useful in all they do? We know a young man who once said he never would choose for a wife a girl who could not eat nimbly; and he was quite right. "Quick at meat—quick at work" is a true proverb, and we would quite advise any poor girl who has heard that 'it is not genteel to eat quickly,' to dispense with that sort of gentility as soon as possible, or she may perchance lose a good husband.

While speaking of the time of taking meals, we would say to the good wife—*be punctual*. If your husband comes from his morning's occupation at one o'clock, and has to return at two, do not let it be nearly that time before his dinner is ready. The consequences of such a habit may be more serious than would be suspected. We lately had a peep into the domestic arrangement of a family, where the husband is always looking pale and complaining of indigestion, and wondering what is the matter with him. Now, his business requires his attendance at eight o'clock, his breakfast is seldom ready for him until it is nearly time for him to leave home; and the result is, that he hastily gulps down his food, and swallows his tea, hot enough to scald all powers of digestion out of him, and has to leave home while the rest of the family finish their breakfast; and with mind and body in a hurried and flurried state, he commences his

daily labours. Returning again to dinner, he has to wait till his hour is almost expired before it is ready for him. He has the annoyance of seeing all the operations of 'getting ready,' and feeling himself to be waiting : the time passes unemployed and unenjoyed. Having again hastily swallowed a meal, he is obliged to be off to business again, without being able to enjoy a few minutes of rest and family intercourse that would so assist digestion and preserve health. No wonder he looks pale. A daily error brings its daily consequences. Yet his wife is kind and affectionate, and would be surprised and grieved if told that she in any way injured her husband's health. But let her try ; and let any one who has been unpunctual in this respect try what the results of punctuality would be upon health and happiness.

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COTTAGE COOKERY

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY OBSERVATIONS.

IT is very desirable for all persons to have a sufficiency of agreeable and wholesome food ; but however much may be spent in the purchase of food, if it be not well prepared, it can be neither agreeable nor wholesome. Many persons who can afford to lay out but just enough, by their want of skill in cooking, make it far less than enough. Bad cookery spoils and wastes good provisions. Those who have, or may have to manage the food of a family, should take pains to understand the business well. The family of a working man, whose wife is a clever manager, and a good cook, fares better, and is really richer and more comfortable than another family whose weekly income is several shillings more, but where the manager is ignorant or idle, careless or wasteful. Surely every woman who loves her husband and children, and wishes to make them comfortable, will be glad to learn what she does not already know, and to improve her plans and methods if better can be pointed out to her. It is with a desire to offer useful information, and to suggest friendly hints for improvement, that this little book is prepared.

The subject is recommended to the attention of young females, whether they be at present engaged in manufacturing or other pursuits for gaining a livelihood, and not in the way of seeing and learning much of domestic business, or whether they be domestic servants or others, who though they have to do with

household affairs, have plenty of everything at command, and are not obliged so strictly to economize as they may find it advantageous and necessary to do when they come to keep house for themselves. Frugal habits and notions will enhance their value to their employers at present, and to have them ready formed and in operation when they begin on their own account, will promote the welfare and comfort of their family to a degree little understood, except by those well-meaning women, who have entered on domestic life in ignorance, and spent the first few years in struggling and blundering to find out by dear-bought experience, what they might easily have known and understood at their first setting out.

To begin at the beginning, this chapter will consist chiefly of a few introductory observations, which will apply to the subject in general, and to all future details.

The female head of a family who wishes to keep a good table, according to her circumstances, must have a proper knowledge of several important matters besides making a pudding, or dressing a joint of meat. Indeed, if she be not a good manager in general, it will be but occasionally, and by mere chance, that she cooks even one dish properly.

First, there is *money*: she should well understand how much she can afford to spend on food, and how to lay it out to the best advantage, on what is really profitable and nourishing, what is worth the money asked for it, and what may be so portioned out as to secure something comfortable every day. Without a steady plan in these matters, prudently adjusted, and steadily adhered to, a family may be one day living in luxury, and another day half starved. The way habitually to have enough of everything is never to have too much of anything. The want and misery of many families arise, more from want of discretion in managing their resources, than from the real scantiness of their income. Where this is the case, if their income were doubled, they would still be poor and uncomfortable.

Next, there is *time*: a working man's wife has many things to attend to. She had need to rise early, move about briskly, and make the best of every minute; or her affairs will all be behind-hand and in confusion. Among other things, her family will rarely sit down to a comfortable well-dressed meal. A good manager is known by her foreast. She thinks of what she has to do; she knows when a thing ought to be begun, in order to its being finished at the proper time, and she takes care to do it accordingly. In the business of cooking, a minute's timely preparation may save an hour of bustle and discomfot. Even in the difference of having to draw a pail of water, when the pot is wanted to be put on the fire, or having it stand ready for use, may consist the difference between having the family meal ready in proper time, or too late and ill-cooked. To think of things at the proper time; to have a time for everything, and everything to its time, are habits worth many pounds in a year to a family manager, and contribute much to family comfort, whether the house and income be large or small.

Then, there is the management of provisions: every cook and housekeeper shculd understand what articles must be used fresh, and what may be kept, and how long they will keep, and what is the best method of preserving them from injury. She should also understand that everything is of use and that most things may be made useful in more ways than one. A good manager will prepare a wholesome savoury meal from what a wasteful slattern would throw away. This kind of skill is very valuable, and makes a great difference in the living of a family.

There is also the management of *firing* :—a good cook keeps a good fire. By "good" is not meant extravagant, but a fire suitable to what is required. Fuel is an expensive article of consumption. This is keenly felt by families of narrow income; but in this particular much depends on management. A fire is often suffered to blaze away in waste, and then to go nearly out for want of attention. But a thrifty man-

ager knows that a good steady fire may be kept up with less consumption than a bad one. A fire will last twice as long, and throw out a better heat, if a shovel of small coals or cinders be thrown at the back, than if the large coals be left to burn alone. In the hard winter of 1846-7 many families adopted the plan of placing moderately-sized lumps of chalk amongst the brightest coals on their fires. These when covered with cinders or small coal, retain a glowing heat for a great length of time, highly serviceable for warming or cooking. The careful manager attends to three things: not to let the fire go so low as to require sticks and bellows to draw it up; always to use the least expensive thing that will burn, and answer the purpose required; and always to make a good use of a fire when it is burning. The labour of cooking may be lightened, and the result improved by timely preparation. This is especially the ease with stews and other things that require more time than between one meal and another. In the evening, when a family generally sit round the fire an hour or two, such things might as well be going on for the following day.

Utensils:—A good workman likes good tools; so does a good cook. The business is more easily and successfully performed if we have at command a convenient well set grate, and saucepans of different sizes to suit various purposes. The first cost of these things frightens many persons from attempting to obtain them, but the expense is one, that with good management, soon pays itself, in saving of time and fuel; it is therefore worth an effort, though it may involve some temporary self-denial. This is especially the ease with a good grate, in which a slow fire may be kept for hours, with scarcely any consumption, yet ready to burn up briskly when required. This saves the time of frequently lighting a fire. If fitted with a small boiler on one side, and an oven on the other, there is a further saving, and accommodation too, in a constant supply of hot water, both for cooking

and cleaning, and the means of baking a loaf, pie, pudding, or stew, without additional trouble or expense. But it is not merely having convenient articles for use ; care is required to keep them in order. A good cook will always put things to their proper use, and when done with, immediately make them clean and dry, and put them in their proper place, that when again wanted they may be found ready for use.

Now, it is hardly fit that a chapter on cookery should finish without directions for preparing one dish ; so here is a recipe and a story together :—

FLINT-SOUP.

“ When first I was married,” said Mary Campbell, a respectable woman, well known to the writer, “ we generally had flint soup for dinner once a week.”

“ Flint-soup ! I never heard of such a thing. What could it be good for ?”

“ Why to be sure it was not over rich ; but I am very glad that ever I learned to make it, and eat it, too.”

“ And pray how is it made ?”

“ I will tell you :—The first Saturday after we were married, my husband brought home his wages, ‘ Now Mary,’ said he, ‘ I must lay by for — rent, and for — firing, and for — clothing ; and here is the remainder for you to make the best of for our supply through the week. But mind you do not run in debt ; and have always a fresh loaf in the house before you cut the last. We cannot afford to eat new bread.’ I got things very comfortably, and, as I thought, very frugally ; but the next Friday evening, after supper, I had to say to my husband, ‘ What must we do ? the money is all gone, and we have nothing in the house for to-morrow’s dinner. I am sure I have made it go as far as I could.’ My husband was very kind ; he found no fault, but said we could have some flint-soup for dinner. He asked, if there was bread in the house. ‘ Yes,’ I said, ‘ a whole loaf and a picce.’ ‘ That’s well,’ he said, and, perhaps you have a little

oatmeal or flour ? ‘ There’s a little.’ ‘ Good again ; and plenty of herbs in the garden ; we shall do.’ So he washed a couple of flints very clean, and set them on with some water and onions, and a carrot or two. When the roots were tender he put in the meal, and some pepper and salt, and parsley and thyme, and the piece of stale bread, and I assure you we had a good dinner.”

“ But what was the use of the flints ? Why not leave them out, and call it herb porridge ?”

“ That is what I could not understand at first. Well, next Saturday matters were much the same, so we again contentedly dined on flint-soup. In the course of the week, having picked some bones of meat, I was going to throw them away, when the thought struck me, that if they were chopped up and put in the soup, they would give at least as much goodness as flint. My husband thought so too ; so we tried, and found they greatly improved the soup, and from that time we never wasted a bone ; and in the course of a few weeks we found the money hold out for Saturday’s dinner, and even allow a trifle to lay by. My husband was pleased when we got into this course ; and when we were thoroughly settled in frugal habits, and not before, he told me the real use of the flints in the soup. ‘ There are two things,’ said he, ‘ which I have always resolved against, as being the ruin of many poor people—*debt* and *waste*. So, from the day I took to providing for myself, I determined always to keep bread in the house, and to live on bread and water, rather than run in debt. But, instead of eating dry bread, and drinking cold water, I set myself to make it into soup ; for I thought. If I boiled down the flints, which could not enrich the liquor, it might sharpen my wits to make the best use of anything that I could.’—“ I believe,” continued the good woman, “ it was to sharpen my wits rather than his own ; and I can truly say, that making flint-soup has taught me to turn to good account many things that are often thrown away as if they were worthless as stones.”

CHAPTER II

CHOICE OF PROVISIONS.

WHAT is the use of eating ? It is to supply the waste that is continually going on in our bodies.

What is the best kind of food ? That which best answers the above-mentioned purpose.

What is the cheapest food ? That which supplies any given portion of wholesome nourishment at the smallest cost.

These questions and considerations demand the attention of all who have to do with providing food for families. They should especially never be lost sight of by those who have to do it from limited, perhaps rather scanty resources. For want of thought and understanding in these matters, many people make mistakes, both in purchasing and preparing food, to the great detriment both of the health and comfort of their families.

Learned men have taken great pains, and tried many curious experiments, to prove exactly what is required and adapted to supply the wants of the human body. The books containing the result of their researches, are very interesting and instructive to those who have leisure to study them. But such books do not come within the reach of the generality of persons who have most to do with the practical part of the business. It is well for them that they may learn a great deal by dint of common sense and observation.

Those who exercise these valuable faculties, are becoming, every year and every day they live, better household managers. Those who neglect to use them, go on blundering to the end of their days.

What do you live upon? What is the habitual food of your family? For instance. What provisions have been consumed in your home during the past week? The writer has no right to ask these questions, nor is the reader under any obligation to answer them, but if they should lead any one to think the matter over to any good purpose, they will not be deemed impertinent.

"We live all the year round pretty much alike," says one cottage manager, "we cannot afford to buy meat, and if we had it, we have no time to cook it. So we have toast and tea for breakfast, and potatos through the rest of the day."

"We don't often see a bit of fresh meat," says another, "but we generally get a slice of bacon or a red herring or two, to fry with our potatos."

"Our diet," says a third, "is mostly bread and cheese or butter. With such a family of children to keep, it is in vain to think of meat."

There is one point on which these people are all agreed—namely, that fresh meat is the dearest kind of provision, and that which *they*, at all events, must do without. Some will tell us, that they do treat themselves to a bit of meat for their Sunday's dinner. They generally buy the coarsest parts, such as the butchers will sell cheap, and bake this meat over a pudding or potatos. This is the weekly feast—the other days, they "don't look for meat—but do as well as they can with bread and cheese or potatos."

Now do these people act on sound principles? or are they all mistaken? Have they a right notion of the words "cheap" and "dear?" or do they confine their idea of cheapness to getting a large bulk or weight for money, without regarding how far it will go for the real purpose of nutrition? and when they have got their provisions, do they prepare them in such a way as to make them most serviceable?

The best and most agreeable diet comprehends a due proportion of the various substances that are adapted for human food. *Grain*, in its various pre-

parations, as bread, porridge, puddings, &c.; *meat*, as the flesh of animals is popularly termed; *eggs, milk, roots, leaves, and fruits*, of various sorts, all are good in their kind, and capable of affording a greater or less proportion of nourishment. Not one of them is to be despised, but all to be made the best of. But before we pronounce one kind of food cheap and another dear, or say we can only afford to have one instead of another, we should understand not merely the price of the several articles, but the proportion of nourishment they yield; as well as how to prepare them so as to gain the whole of that nourishment. Good bread is the most nourishing of all food, and that on which life can be longest sustained. Meat, taking a pound to a pound, and allowing for bone and waste in cooking, contains about half the nourishment of bread; potatos, barely one-fourth part; carrots, rather less—about one sixth. Parsnips, broad-beans, red beets, and vegetable marrow, and asparagus, are among the most nutritious vegetables. Next come French beans and peas, and then, turnips and greens, which last yield about one-third the nourishment of potatos. Dried beans and peas, properly, prepared, give more than three-times the nourishment of potatos; so do rice, barley, and oatmeal. Milk is one of the most valuable articles of food, and where it can be obtained at all, one of the cheapest. Cheese requires strong powers of digestion to make it available at all; and the real nourishment it yields is but little in proportion either to its weight or its cost. It would be easy to prove to any who are not prejudiced, that it is no matter of economy to live on bread and cheese, but that it would be really cheaper to have a portion of meat. Butter is more nourishing than cheese, but far below meat, and as its cost is much higher, it must be regarded as a matter of luxury, not of economy. As to toast, it may fairly be pronounced a contrivance for consuming bread, butter, firing, and time. Those who can afford daily rounds of buttered toast, can surely never

have just cause to complain of being stinted in the means of providing for their family. Fresh meat is much more nourishing than salted meat. Meat loses weight in salting ; besides, such a change takes place upon it, as renders it less fitted for digestion and nutriment. The coarsest and more bony parts of meat, though sold at a nominally low price, are in reality the dearest ; they certainly are so at any thing above half the price of prime joints. The gristly parts yield much more nourishment than the scraggy parts, but require long cooking to draw out the goodness and to make the meat tender.

The meat of full grown animals is more digestible and nourishing than that of young animals. Beef and mutton are far preferable to veal and lamb. In a general way, mutton is the most wholesome and profitable of all meats.

CHAPTER III.

MODES OF COOKING.

As to different modes of cooking ;—roasting and broiling are perhaps most agreeable, and suitable to persons of a delicate appetite. A mutton chop nicely broiled, or a slice from a well-roasted joint, is the best thing of the kind that can be given to a person recovering from illness, and is well relished by most persons in health. Those who can afford to have as much meat as they choose, will most likely often adopt these modes of preparing it. But it must not be forgotten, that though what remains is the best of its kind, in roasting and broiling a great part of the goodness of the meat escapes in the form of steam and dripping. Hence those who can purchase only a small quantity of meat, and want to make it go as far as possible, should adopt a more economical way of cooking it, one by which the juices of the meat can be shut in and preserved for use, as well as the meat itself.

When money and time are scarce, it is important for the family-provider to understand well those modes of cooking by which a small portion of the more expensive articles can be made to enrich a large portion of the cheaper sorts ; those also which do not require long and undivided attention immediately before using, but which may be set going at any convenient time, and be progressing while other business is attended to. In both these respects, stews of various kinds commend themselves to the notice of the thrifty cottage-cook. The following hints may assist her in the choice, and the preparation of the ingredients :—

1. What meats are proper for stewing? Any and

every sort. The better the meat, the more richness is imparted by a small quantity; but, by well-stewing, the coarsest part will become tender and nutritious, though they can scarcely be made eatable in any other way.

All the gristly parts of an animal, such as feet, hocks, shanks, knuckles, &c., should be stewed. They require much time, but yield a great deal of goodness. Even when so much done that every morsel of meat and gristle separates, the bones will ~~as~~ ⁱⁿ bear boiling down, and give more richness to the liquor than could be supposed by those who have never tried.

Stews are improved by being made of several kinds of meat. Hence it answers very well to buy a pound or two of trimming bits, which are generally sold at about half the price of prime joints, and are nearly or quite free from bone. It may not be the same in all places, but the following is not an unfair specimen of what happens, especially in manufacturing towns, where working people often refuse to purchase any but a handsome-looking cut of meat, however small the quantity they require or can afford. A person went into a butcher's shop, in B—, and looked round for something suitable to stew, with poultry giblets. Being the day before market-day, the butcher's stock was low. Excepting a few large joints, there was only a half neck of mutton—the scrag end. For this—it was in the dear time, early in 1847,—he asked 7d. per lb., but came down to 6½d. The piece weighed rather more than 3 lbs.. 1s. 8d. seemed too much to give for so bony and unprofitable a piece of meat, and the purchaser was about to leave the shop and seek elsewhere, when the butcher said “Here's a great root of a tongue: I suppose that will not do?” “At what price?” “4d. per lb.” A few little trimming bits made up the weight 2 lbs., for which 8d. was paid. There is no doubt that the quantity of meat was actually more than on the bony scrag for which

ls. 8d. was asked, and it is certain that, had they cost the same, the tongue would have answered much better for the purpose of enriching a stew, while a shilling was saved in the price. The cottage-cook should be prompt at this kind of calculation, and not, when she intends to cut the meat in bits for a stew, a pudding, or a pie, pay a higher price than she need, merely for the sake of having it in one handsome-looking piece.

Thanks to the poor French Protestant Refugees, who were driven to this country by persecution in the time of Louis XIV., the English people have learned to make a good use of many things which formerly were regarded as mere offal, and given to the dogs, or left to putrefy in the tan-yards. Before that time, ox-tail soup, ox-heel soup, stewed shin of beef (or beef alamode), and other dishes now highly esteemed, were unknown in England. The value of such things is now pretty well understood in the kitchens of the gentry : but among the more scantily supplied of the working classes, there is still far too little notion of turning them to account. Shank-bones of mutton, lamb's feet, and bits of bone and gristle, may often be seen thrown aside as worthless. A notionable manager will know better ; when she lays out her shilling with the butcher, she often gets such things for asking for. Sometimes she spends a penny or two-pence on a lot of bones which, though bare of meat, will yield great richness to what would otherwise be mere porridge ; and with the addition of a very small portion of meat, make so good a dish, that it is only to be wished that every working family were so well supplied.

Now, as to stewing the meat. It may be done either in an oven, in a jar with a lid, or over the fire in a saucepan. In either case, the lid should be closely shut to confine the steam. The bony and gristly parts require much longer doing than the lean meat, and the same parts in beef longer than in veal or pork. The first thing is to remove the lean

meat, and saw the heavy bones (such as of a shin or leg of beef) in pieces of four or five inches long; take out the marrow, which is not wanted in the stew, and will make a good pudding, and set on the bones and gristles with plenty of water.* These should boil several hours before the meat is added. When the bones are white and dry, scrape from them all the bits of gristle, which return to the vessel with the rest of the meat, and let the whole stew on until the meat is quite tender, but not ragged. All this part of the business can be done when the fire is most at liberty—perhaps in the evening, when the family are sitting together after their day's work is done.

The bones, though scraped clean, will yet yield more goodness to fresh liquor, in which they may be boiled down another evening. So it is that a good manager is always fore-seeing one day over another. Thus both bustle and waste are avoided, and comfort—according to the means of the family—is secured.

2. What is proper for thickening and flavouring stews?—and when and how is it to be added? Many kinds of dry grain or pulse, and meal—also roots—and fresh gathered leaves or heads of growing vegetables. With the exception of potatos, they may be cooked separately or in the stew, as may be most convenient. The liquor in which potatos are first boiled is more or less injurious, and, to say the least, discolours and gives an unpleasant flavour. They should, therefore, always be partly done before adding them to a stew, or any other preparation.

RICE.—Good Carolina rice, though it bears a higher price, is cheaper than the poorer sorts. It goes farther, and is more nourishing. It is not only better

* The liquor in which meat has been boiled—or even rice or sweet pudding, is far better than water to begin a stew with. A good housewife will always take care of such liquor, and contrive to turn it to account while sweet and good. Let it be remembered, once for all, that though water may be mentioned, liquor ever so little enriched is preferable, if it can be had.

flavoured, but absorbs more water in boiling, and when done, the weight is greater. Rice does not require very long boiling. If previously soaked several hours in soft water, with a little salt, it will require about twenty minutes' boiling. As much less salt must be put in the stew as was used in the soaking of the rice. The liquor should boil rapidly when the rice is put in, and the boiling should not cease until it is quite done. 1 lb. of rice will thicken at least 2 gallons of stew.

BARLEY.—The best sort is that called Scotch barley, from which only the husk is removed. It is to be prepared in the same manner as rice, but takes much longer time to boil. It will not be properly tender in less than two hours, and another hour will not injure, but improve it. If plenty of time is allowed for boiling, a smaller quantity of barley will suffice, than would be required of rice; say about one-third difference.

PEAS.—Split peas are nearly twice the price of whole peas. Being free from hulls, a smaller quantity is required. A pint of split peas is equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ pint of whole peas. Still there is a difference in price in favour of whole peas, which, if good of their kind, boil quite as well as the others. Either sort should be soaked some hours in soft water, in which is dissolved a small quantity of soda—either the carbonate or the common washing soda will do. Of the former, a small teaspoonful, of the latter, a lump the size of a hedge-nut, will do for a quart of peas. It is particularly essential that peas should be put into the liquor when fast boiling, and continue to do so the whole time. Two hours is a good time to allow.

DRIED KIDNEY-BEANS, and also Broad or Windsor Beans, may be prepared in the same manner and proportion as peas; but they take still longer boiling.

SAGO, which is now very cheap, has one great recommendation. It requires no soaking, and is quickly done. Twenty minutes' boiling is sufficient.

HOMINY, or Indian corn bruised, was much used

during the scarcity of 1847 ; and when cheaper than our own grain, or in case of a potato failure, is well worth notice. It requires long soaking, and long boiling. Families who used it daily, had always one jar of it steaming, and another jar cooking in a side oven. An hour or so before dinner time, the latter was portioned out : part mixed with eggs and other ingredients, and browned as a pudding—part stirred in to soup or stew, as might be required—part kept hot, to eat as a substitute for potatos. As soon as this jar was emptied and cleaned, a fresh lot of hominy was again set aside in it, and the other jar was put in the oven, to prepare for next day's use.

OATMEAL.—Coarse Scotch oatmeal is one of the best, as well as the cheapest articles for thickening stews and soups. Some people are silly enough to despise things merely because they are cheap—or because they are eaten by poor people. An instance of this came under the notice of the writer only a few days ago. A lady desired her servant, among other errands, to bring in 3 lbs. of Scotch oatmeal. "Scotch oatmeal!" exclaimed the girl with astonishment. "Do you use *that*? Why it is what they give to the poor folks in the union house." "Yes," replied the lady, "and it is what the Queen gives her children." Oatmeal should be smoothly mixed with a little cold liquor, and stirred to the rest in a boiling state. It requires brisk boiling for half-an-hour, or rather more.

Roots.—Potatos, in any quantity, to be parboiled, peeled, and added to the stew. Parsnips—a most valuable root, cheap, wholesome, and nourishing—may be boiled in stew or soup, either whole or cut in slices. If boiled in stew, they will be tender in about an hour. By long boiling, they will entirely go to mucilage and thicken the liquor. Red beets, the same : they keep their colour and richness better if boiled whole : if large, they require two hours' boiling. Turnips and carrots are good and suitable, but not nearly so nourishing as beets and parsnips.

Unless very young and fresh drawn, they require nearly an hour to boil tender. Large carrots longer still.

ONIONS—a favourite addition to soups and stews—if large, require an hour's boiling. Celery about the same.

Green vegetables, such as spinach, lettuce, parsley green peas, &c., require only a few minutes' boiling; and if done too much, become discoloured and unpleasant in flavour. One and all of the above should boil quickly from the moment they are put in the liquor till they are done.

If a stew is to be done in the oven, the roots may be put in with the other ingredients when quite cold; but never between cold and boiling, and in this case, the green vegetables had better be omitted.

A table-spoonful of salt, and a tea-spoonful of pepper, will be found sufficient to season a gallon of stew.

If the young cottage-cook will study these general remarks, they will help her to understand what part of the business *must* be done just before using, and what *may* be done at any time most convenient to herself. Thus she may often effect a saving both of time and fuel.

CHAPTER IV.

STEWs, SOUPS, AND BROTHS.

Most stews may be done either over the fire, or in an oven in a stone jar with a lid. The common red ware is objectionable on two accounts. It does not stand heat so well as stone ware ; and the glaze, which is of lead, and very pernicious, is acted upon by salt. Either Nottingham ware, or Welsh ware is the best for culinary purposes in general.

1. IRISH STEW.—*Ingredients.*—One lb. of meat cut in bits, 3 or 4 lbs. of potatos scalded and peeled, or an equal quantity of parsnips, or part of each ; three or four onions chopped small ; salt, one table-spoonful ; pepper, one tea-spoonful ; liquor one quart. N. B. Liquor in which meat, or the bone of meat, or rice, has been boiled, is always preferable to water ; but if the liquor is that in which salt meat has been boiled, no more salt will be required.

Mode of Preparing.—At the bottom of the vessel, spread a layer of potatos or parsnips, strew over some of the onions, and some pepper and salt ; then half the meat and some more seasoning ; another layer of potatos ; then the remainder of the meat, onions, and seasoning, cover with the rest of the potatos, press all close ; and last of all add the liquor. If to be baked, it is a good way to tie a paper over the lid, for the sake of keeping in the steam. If in a sauce-pan, shut the lid close. Let the whole boil steadily, at least an hour after it comes to boil. Another half hour will improve it. If done over the fire it will require to be occasionally stirred or shaken, to prevent it sticking or burning.

2. RICE OR BARLEY STEW.—One pound of meat, $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

of rice, or $\frac{1}{3}$ of a pound of Scotch barley, two or three onions, either whole or chopped, two or three turnips or carrots sliced, a red beet root, a vegetable marrow (any or all of these, or any vegetable that may be at hand.) Pepper and salt, as in the foregoing recipe ; liquor, two quarts. If done over the fire, the meat and vegetables may stew for an hour and a-half, and the soaked rice and seasoning be added half-an-hour or rather less before serving, (if the rice is soaked in salt and water, allow so much the less salt.) If cooked in a jar, the whole may be done together. In an oven, two hours will do it well.

3. The "pluek" of a pig, calf or sheep, which consists of liver, lights and melt, sometimes the heart also, makes an excellent dish prepared as either of the above ; allowing, in the first recipe, $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 lbs. of meat to 3 or 4 lbs. of potatos and a quart of liquor; in the second recipe, at least 2 lbs. of meat to the quantity there given of liquor, thickening, and vegetables. These internal parts of the animal sell for half the price of the prime meat, and being free from bone are not unprofitable for those who like them.

Scotch oatmeal makes a good thickening for this dish ; either alone or in addition to potatos or other roots. For a quart of liquor, 2 oz. of the oatmeal to be scattered among the meat and seasoning.

4. STEW OF SHEEP'S HEAD.—One or two sheep's heads washed very clean, set on in a gallon of liquor ; when it comes to boil, throw in a tea-spoonful of salt to make the scum rise. Let it boil half an hour, then skim it, and put in a few turnips, carrots, parsnips, beet, vegetable-marrow (any or all as may suit) cut in slices, three onions, a little parsley (this may be added now or later ; a few minutes will sufficiently boil it), $\frac{1}{4}$ lb of Scotch oatmeal mixed smooth with a little cold liquor, a tea-spoonful of pepper, and two or three tea-spoonfuls of salt ; stir well till the whole boils up, then shut the lid close, and let it stew gently, but not cease boiling till done. It should boil a full hour after the thickening, &c., are added. If

done in an oven, full two hours should be allowed ; and all the ingredients may be put in the jar together cold.

5. STEW OF LEG, OR SHIN OR BEEF, in an economical way. The bone should be sawed in lengths of about 4 inches. The marrow may be taken out to make a pudding. Remove the lean meat, and set on the bones and gristly parts in, at least, two gallons of water, either in an oven or over the fire as best may suit. They should be stewed for at least five or six hours ; if in a baker's oven, the pan may be put in over night and remain till next morning, but this does not answer in a small family oven, which in that length of time would become quite cold.* If this first part of the process is carried on at home, it may be a convenience to boil a few parsnips in the liquor, and perhaps also a pudding, neither of which will injure, but rather enrich. (The marrow of a shin or leg of beef is sufficient for 2 lbs of flour: no cloth should be used, as that would take up the goodness of the liquor. The pudding should be made stiff as paste, and boiled in the form of one or more dumplings.) This first boiling having been carried on as long as convenient, the bones should be taken out and cleared of all the gristly bits, which are to be returned to the stew. The bones if again boiled down for several hours in fresh liquor, with onions and seasoning, and thickened with oatmeal, will make two quarts of good porridge or broth.

To return to the stew. The raw meat should be cut in bits of about 2 oz. each, and seasoned with pepper and salt, then, together with the gristle and six or eight onions be stewed in the first made liquor,

* Without attempting chemically to explain the cause and nature of the change produced, it is enough to say here, that meat or soup suffered to become cold in a covered vessel, acquires a peculiar acidity, different from that of decaying meat, more resembling the acid of vinegar, but such as renders it both unpalatable and unwholesome.

five or six hours, either in the oven or over the fire. This is now as rich a stew as need be desired. A small portion of it with bread or potatos will make a satisfying meal. When cold it will turn out a beautiful stiff jelly ; in moderate weather will keep good several days for re-warming or eating cold. N.B. The bones will bear boiling down again in water or rice liquor. They should not be put aside as having yielded all their goodness until they are quite dry and white.

6. STEWED OX CHEEK.—The best way of doing this is in a large deep pan in a baker's oven. It requires long doing, but not frequent attention. The quantity of liquor, from three gallons to five, according to the size of the cheek. It should be set in a moderately warm oven, so as to secure its coming to boil ; it may then stand in the oven all night. The cheek should then be taken out and the liquor (which will be much reduced in quantity) left to cool. When cold, a thick cake of fat may be removed, which is excellent for making pies. Again set on the liquor and meat ; when it boils, add thickening, herbs or roots, and seasoning. The thickening may be oatmeal, rice, peas, or barley. If the former, mix smoothly with a little cold liquor, and keep stirring till it boils. Six or eight carrots, the same of parsnips and turnips ; potatos parboiled ; ten or twelve onions or leeks ; three or four sticks of celery ; a red beet root, or two or three vegetable marrows ; a bunch of parsley, and a few sprigs of thyme—any or all of these are suitable additions. When the whole fairly boils, cover close, and let it simmer two hours or more, till all is perfectly tender and well blended.

7. OX-TAILS AND PALATES.—A very similar dish to the former, but more suitable for a small family, as a smaller quantity may be prepared at once. The tail or tails should be divided at the joints, but the palates are better done whole. To one tail and one palate, allow a gallon of liquor, boil or bake till the

liquor is reduced one-half ; by that time, the palate will be sufficiently tender to peel off the prickly skin. Let the liquor cool, remove the fat. Again set on the liquor, the meat, pepper and salt, two large onions chopped small, or a handful of young onions, and two ounces of oatmeal. A few turnips or Jerusalem artichokes may be added. Let the whole boil gently for an hour.

8. BEEF BOUILLI.—This is beef boiled, or rather stewed, without previous salting, but seasoned in the cooking, and with the addition of roots and herbs. It is perhaps the best way of dressing the brisket and rands of beef, also the blade bones and neck.

The meat may be done whole, or cut in pieces about four inches long and two broad. To 3 or 4 lbs. of meat, add three or four each of large carrots, parsnips, turnips, onions, or leeks, all sliced, with two ounces of oatmeal, and pepper and salt. At bottom of the vessel in which the stew is to be baked or boiled, lay full half the vegetables ; then the meat, oatmeal, and seasoning ; the remainder of the vegetables at top. Put as much liquor as will cover the whole, and one quart more. Keep the vessel closely shut, and let the whole stew gently for full four hours.

9. MUTTON BROTH.—The knuckle of a shoulder or leg, or the scraggy part of a neck or breast of mutton (either of which should be bought at a low price) answer very well for broth, and make a good family dinner. Set on the meat with a gallon of liquor and 6 oz. of Scotch barley. When it has boiled an hour or more, add eight or ten turnips, three or four carrots sliced, and four or five onions. Half-an-hour before serving, put in a few small suet dumplings, also a few sprigs of parsley and blossoms of marigold. This should be allowed in the whole two-and-a-half or three hours to boil, in which time, the liquor will be reduced full one-third, and the whole will be rich and good.

10. PEASE-SOUP.—The feet, hocks, and ears of a pig make excellent soup, and there is no better way

of dressing them. Very good soup may be made of the liquor in which any piece of meat has been boiled, if not too salt; or of that in which mere bones have been long boiled. Whatever be the basis of the soup, the pease are to be put to it when in an actually boiling state, and continue to boil till done. A quart of split, or three pints of whole pease will thicken a gallon of liquor, (see the remarks given in the third chapter.) The vegetables to be added, are celery, onions, or leeks, carrots, parsnips, and turnips, parsley and mint. The parsley and mint require only a few minutes' boiling, the others about an hour: a little pepper and salt, to be added or omitted, as the liquor is already salt or otherwise.

CHAPTER V.

PUDDINGS AND PIES.

ONE way of managing a small portion of meat to advantage, and of making those parts of an animal tender and nourishing, which by any hasty mode of cooking can scarcely be rendered eatable, is by long boiling enclosed in a paste. A meat pudding is an agreeable, and often a convenient variety in cottage cookery ; and the inexperienced cook may find the following hints worth notice.

All flour-puddings are the better for being mixed some hours before boiling. It is, in fact, a sort of steeping by which the flour expands, or becomes larger and lighter. If it suits to make a pudding the day before it is wanted to be boiled it is not injured but improved thereby.

Flour becomes lighter, and goes farther in a boiled pudding, than in a baked one, and requires long boiling that it may fully expand ; a pound of flour boiled, makes a larger pudding than a pound of flour baked, and if mixed the day before, and boiled three hours, makes a much larger pudding than if made just before boiling, and boiled only an hour-and-a-half, or two hours, which is the length of time commonly allowed.

A flour-pudding for boiling, is better mixed with water than with milk, because flour requires long boiling, but milk is injured by it. On the other hand, a baked pudding, which must be done quickly, is improved by the use of milk. If milk be used, especially in hot weather, it will not do to mix it the day before using ; but it is better to mix it, at least, an hour or two before hand, and set it in a cool place.

This remark applies to all batter-puddings and pancakes.

Flour-puddings may be divided into two kinds :—*batter*, or that which when first brought into contact with heat, whether of the oven or the boiling pot, is more or less liquid, and can be poured ; and *paste*, which can be lifted as a solid mass, and is moulded into form with a rolling pin. In either kind a proper stiffness or consistency is essential to a good result. If batter be too liquid, the flour settles, and the lower part of the pudding is heavy, and the top thin, with the fat (if any be used) in one layer at top, instead of being spread through the whole mass. If too stiff, the flour cannot properly expand, and the pudding is hard and tough.

In flour paste, there is less danger of making it too dry than too moist. No more liquid should be used than is necessary just to moisten every particle of the flour, so that none may hang about the basin or pan in which it is mixed, or the board on which it is rolled. If made too wet at first, the crust will eat tough, and the flour required to make it stiff enough for rolling out, will never become properly mingled with the fat. If baked, a crust made too wet is apt to scorch in the oven.

A light hand and a skilful eye will prevent much waste and litter in making puddings and pies. Some cooks generally make a little more than their basin or their dish will hold, or a little more than is wanted to cover their pie ; and some will leave as much sticking about the basin, pie board and rolling-pin, as would have made a dumpling. But an attentive cook soon gets a habit of judging exactly the quantity of flour and other ingredients required for her purpose, and also of working in such a light neat-handed manner that the several utensils employed, when done with, are almost as clean as if they had not been used. The difference between slatternly waste and careful neatness, may seem trifling in one or two instances, but when repeated day after

day, amounts to something considerable in the course of a year.

In making either paste or batter, such a mode of mixing the ingredients should be observed, as will best secure bringing every particle of the flour in contact with the articles by which it is to be enriched and moistened. In ill-mixed dough or batter, we may sometimes meet with a lump of dry, hardened flour. When in paste, it is for want of sufficient beating or kneading ; and in batter, because time has not been given for the particles of flour entirely to separate, before exposure to the action of heat.

Some people when making a batter pudding, break their eggs into the flour, and so beat them. This is a bad way. The eggs should be beaten separately with a little salt, and then thoroughly mixed with the flour ; and the quantity of milk or water requisite to bring the whole to a proper consistence poured in afterwards.

If suet is used, it should be chopped fine, and well rubbed into the flour before any liquid is added. A table-spoonful of suet or dripping is about equal to an egg for enriching flour puddings or pies, and making them light ; a mixture of both is preferable—say two eggs and a little suet, will make a better batter than three eggs without suet.

The basin, tin or dish, in which a pudding is to be boiled or baked, must be greased to preserve the contents from sticking. The cloth tied over the basin should also be either greased or dredged with flour.

For boiling, the pudding must exactly fill the vessel in which it is to be boiled, otherwise the water will get in and break the pudding. For baking, a batter pudding should not reach the top of the dish by an inch or more. If too full, it will boil over in the oven before the flour expands and thickens. For all boiled puddings, it is essential that the water boil quickly when the pudding is put in the pot ; that it is made to boil up immediately after ; and that it never cease boiling till quite done. If these points

are not attended to, the pudding will be broken and watery.

After putting in a pudding, it should be shaken about for two or three minutes, both to preserve the batter from settling and the cloth from sticking. For a paste pudding, the shaking is not necessary, but it should be moved with a fork to ascertain that it does not stick.

By long boiling the quantity of water is lessened. This should be watched, and a little boiling water added occasionally, so as to keep the pudding floating the whole time of boiling.

As to the enriching ingredients. Some people have a notion that nothing but butter is good for making pastry, and that a large quantity is required: both these are mistakes. For the richest pastry, a part good sweet lard or marrow, and part butter, is preferable to butter alone. Dripping or lard mixed, or separately, makes very good common pies. The fat that settles on the top of stews, (see page 21—ox cheek) makes a very light crust. Suet shred fine, answers very well for meat pies, especially if intended for eating hot. From one-third to one-half the weight of the flour in fat, is rich enough for ordinary purposes.

For boiled paste suet is preferable to any other kind of fat, though either of the others, just mentioned, will answer the purpose.

Instead of using any fat, some people make their paste of baker's dough, with the addition of one egg to a quartern; or the flour may be raised with yeast, then wet it with milk, or milk and water, the warmth of new milk, and an egg previously well beaten and mixed with the liquid. The powders now much in use for making unfermented bread, answer still better than yeast. If bought ready mixed, they are to be rubbed into the flour when dry. If kept in the separate form of soda and acid, the soda to be mixed in the flour, the acid in cold water, with which the paste is to be wetted. If this mode is adopted, about half the ordinary quantity of fat will be sufficient.

Proportions for batter. For the richest batter: to three table-spoonfuls of flour, add six eggs well beaten, a pinch of salt, and as much new milk as will bring the whole to a pint.

For a rich Yorkshire pudding: four eggs, four table-spoonfuls of flour, a pinch of salt, a pint of milk. To be baked in the dripping-pan under roast meat.

For a good family pudding: three eggs, two table-spoonfuls of suet, a pinch of salt, one pound of flour, one half-pint of milk. For a plain pudding: two eggs, or one egg and a little suet, one pound of flour, as much skim milk or water as above.

For paste: rub part of the fat (of whatever kind) into the dry flour, with a pinch of salt; moisten with cold water, carefully avoiding to make it too wet. Shake a little flour on the paste-board or dresser, on which turn out the dough, and roll it out thin. Spread the remainder of the fat equally over the surface, fold it up again, beat with the rolling-pin, and roll out to the size and shape required.

Paste may be made some hours before using, but must be kept covered up in a cool place, and not finally rolled out till just before putting in the oven. A paste-pudding may be made the day before, and tied up quite ready to put in the pot. Keep it covered up and in a cool place.

A MEAT-PUDDING.—Is better boiled in a basin than in a cloth only, as the basin preserves the crust from breaking and secures the gravy. If the basin has no rim, the cloth must be large enough entirely to tie in the basin. A quart basin will hold two pounds of meat, with a crust of moderate thickness. Flour one pound and-a-quarter; suet, six or eight ounces; salt, from two to three tea-spoonfuls; pepper, half a tea-spoonful. Cut the meat in pieces, the size of two fingers. If it is a tough sinewy part, beat the pieces with a rolling-pin. Prepare the paste as above, and grease the inside of the basin. Roll out the crust, lay it in to cover the basin; when the inner rim of the basin is entirely covered, an inch of

should hang over all round ; a small lump of dough should also be reserved to lay at top. Pepper and salt the meat, and pack it closely in the basin. (To those who look to a bit of meat only as an occasional treat, the hint will be but of little use, but to the young cock in families where fresh meat is dressed frequently, perhaps daily, it may be well to say, a little good gravy of roast or boiled meat, which when cold stiffens to a jelly, is a great improvement put in among the meat of a pudding.) Roll out the spare bit of crust as near as may be to the size of the basin. Lay it on the meat, fold over the edges of the under crust, and press them tightly together. Flour the middle of the cloth, and tie it over very securely. If it projects above the top of the basin it is no matter, provided the cloth be large enough to tie it in. This pudding should boil at least three hours ; if four, all the better. Some people like the addition of an onion. If meat run short, it is not a bad way to put a little meat next the under-crust, and fill up with potatos, or parsnips parboiled.

A BAKED MEAT-PUDDING.—Flour, one pound ; suet, one-third pound ; water or milk, one pint. If an egg or two be used, less suet will be required. Prepare a batter according to the above general remarks. Grease the bottom and sides of the dish ; lay the meat cut in pieces peppered and salted, and pour over the batter. From an hour to an hour-and-a-half, will bake this pudding ; but unless the meat be prime and tender, it should be previously simmered for half-an-hour or more, in a very small quantity of liquor, only just enough to keep the vessel from burning. But meat that requires this is much better for a boiled than a baked pudding.

A POTATO-PIE.—Six pounds of potatos, boiled or steamed, till they will mash. Rub them through a colander, or mash with half-a-pint of milk, and four or six ounces of dripping. Grease a dish, lay in it half the potatos ; then one pound (or more) of meat,

ent in bits, with pepper and salt, two or three onions chopped, and a little parley, thyme, or other herb that may be liked. If a little cold gravy is at hand, by all means pour it in ; lay the remainder of the potatos at top ; press down smooth and bake for one hour.

A PLAIN SUET-PUDDING.—A pound-and-a-half of flour, half-a-pound of suet, one-and-a-half pint of water, half a tea-spoonful of salt, well mixed ; and boil in a greased-basin or a floured cloth, at least three hours, if four or five hours, it will be all the lighter, and more nourishing. N.B. The liquor in which puddings are boiled, when left to become cold, has a cake of fat at top, far too good to be thrown away. It answers for many purposes in cooking, but must be used fresh or it soon becomes sour.

TO MAKE A CHRISTMAS PUDDING.—Cut some slices of stale bread very thin ; cut off the crust, and put a layer in the bottom of a baking-dish ; spread it over with some of your minee-pie meat ; then more bread and minee-meat till the dish is full. Then pour over it milk, with two or three eggs beaten up in it, till the bread is saturated, and bake it an hour and a-half. A paste may be placed round the dish, if desired.

CHAPTER VI.

FAT, PASTRY, AND AMERICAN OVENS.

THESE chapters are headed Cottage Cookery, yet they sometimes refer to cooking utensils, and to articles of provision, hardly coming within the range of cottage-housewifery. They are not, however, out of place. A cottage housewife, if she now and then happens to get a thing out of the common way, is more likely to inquire how it should be managed, than if it were a thing she is often having and knows all about. Besides, though she may not have the particular thing that she is here told how to use or prepare, in the directions given she may find useful hints that will apply to other things, and so improve her knowledge of cookery in general. And then, too, it is hoped, that these hints will be read by many who, whatever they may become, are not yet cottage-housewives ; such, for example, as domestic servants, and the daughters in plain families who are beginning to assist their mothers in domestic affairs. If such persons acquire good notions, and careful, clever habits now, it will greatly conduce to the comfort and advantage of the families in which they are stationed, and will be storing up a fund of preparation for future days, when they may have to manage all household affairs by themselves, and on their own account. Let no one, therefore, say : This article does not concern me ; we buy no fat, except fat pork, and that only wants to be boiled, and eaten ; pastry is too expensive for us, we leave that to the gentry ; and, as to an American oven, we have not got one, and I should not know how to use it, if we had.—There is a mistake running through all such

objections. The idea of pastry should not be confined to the rich delicacies sold in the shops at 'a penny a mouthful.' A homely meat pie, or fruit-pie, is as much pastry as the costly raspberry-puff's and lobster-patties of the shops. Fat of some kind is requisite for making pastry ; and fat that would answer the purpose is often wasted, because its value is not known or thought of. It may, therefore, be useful to suggest to the inexperienced cook what should be taken care of, and how to make it useful.

FAT.—Let nothing be wasted. Whatever comes from meat in the process of cooking should be taken care of. If a joint of meat be roasted or baked, the fat in the dish or dripping-pan is most valuable for all cooking purposes, as well as for eating on bread instead of butter. During roasting, the cook should remove the dripping-pan whenever she tires the fire, and take every care to keep it free from a heat and cinders. It is well also to strain the dripping through a coarse hair sieve. This is not necessary for the dripping of baked meat. When cold, the basin or other vessel containing the dripping should be turned down on a clean shelf, to keep out both air and dust. Dripping thus secured will keep a long time, but when once it is cut, all the gravy that has settled at bottom should be removed and used, as it soon turns mouldy after being exposed to the air.

If meat or bacon, or even suet-pudding is boiling, instead of skimming the pot into the fire, as is the practice of some untidy cooks, making a disagreeable smell in the house, besides the danger of setting fire to the chimney, the skimmings should be dropped into a basin of cold water, when all the refuse will sink, and the clear fat will collect at top in a much greater quantity than would be thought possible by those who have been used to throw spoonful after spoonful into the fire. When the boiling is done, the liquor, if fresh, will be used for soup or stew,

(see page 24,) but if ever so salt, the cake of fat may be made use of. It must not be left to cool in a copper vessel; indeed, earthen or stone ware is better than any kind of metal. The fat thus obtained will serve for any common purpose in cooking, such as basting or frying, or for the crust of a meat-pie, but it should be used fresh, as the moisture hanging about it, renders it liable to turn sour. The fat of rashers may be clarified for pastry in the way above suggested, pouring it while hot into a vessel of cold water, which also, in a great degree, frees it from salt. Suet, as soon as brought in, should be carefully picked from all bits of vein and skin, and cut up for use. This is done most quickly and effectually, by first shaving the whole quantity thin, the chopper or knife being placed in a slanting direction. Then a little chopping makes the whole as small as possible. Suet should be spread thin on a *dry* dish or plate, and daily changed. Some people sprinkle flour among it, with a view to make it keep better; but this is not a good plan, as it rather tends to turn it sour.

If there is more suet than is likely to be wanted for puddings, when chopped, it may be set in a slow oven or on a stove till melted, then strained into jars or pots, and when cold, turned down. In melting fat of any kind, care must be taken not to put it in too hot a place, nor to let it remain in the influence of the fire longer than is absolutely necessary, or it will become discoloured, and acquire a burnt rancid taste, which is both unpleasant and unwholesome. Before roasting the loin of any animal, it is a good way to take out whatever portion of inside fat or suet is not likely to be eaten with the lean. An inch thickness of outside fat may also be taken from a neck or loin of mutton, and cut up as suet, either for present use in puddings, or to melt down for keeping. By attention to all these matters, the manager of a family, living in a style of frugal comfort, will be constantly providing herself with a

supply of good fat for the various purposes of cookery ; while in families of equal rank, where the master is not very vigilant, nor the servant very conscientious, many a pound of butter or lard is used for basting, frying, and plain pastry ; and things that would have answered the purpose equally well, are thrust into the ‘ grease-pot,’ and sold to the tallow-chandler for less than half their cost. These practices are sometimes remembered with self-reproach, when bitter experience teaches that ‘ wilful waste makes woeful want.’

PASTRY.—Any of the above-mentioned articles are suitable in making pastry. For rich pastry half butter and half dripping, or lard, may be used, and the weight from half that of the flour to two-thirds or three-quarters. The use of a small quantity of bread-powder, or of carbonate of ammonia, makes pie-crust light, and is a saving of fat. One pound of flour will make a large pie. Flour should always be kept in a dry place. In addition to this, it is improved by being dried before the fire, or in a side-oven, immediately before being used for pastry. Fat for making pastry, unless it is already so soft as to be easily spread with the point of a knife, should be shred small ; suet should be minced exceedingly fine, and rolled out, a little flour being shaken on the board and rolling-pin to prevent sticking. A part of the fat should be worked with the hand to cream, then rubbed well into the flour before wetting it, and a part should be kept for rolling in afterwards. If a *short* crust is desired, nearly all the fat may be worked in dry. If a *flakey* crust is preferred, only a little of the fat should be rubbed in at first, and the most kept for rolling in afterwards. Cold water for mixing is better than either warm water or milk. In very cold weather, the chill may be taken off. Use only just liquid enough to moisten and gather up the whole of the flour. If Bread-powder is used, it is generally put into the flour dry ; but if the paste is to be kept after mixing, it

must not be added till just before baking ; be careful to spread it evenly. Having done so, fold up the paste, beat it well, finally roll out, cover the pie, and get it into the oven without delay.

For a meat-pie, the sides as well as the edges of the dish should be lined with thin paste. For a fruit-pie, the side lining is better omitted, but a strip must be laid round no wider than the flat edge of the dish. The upper crust may vary in thickness from half-an-inch to an inch. If light, it will be double the thickness when baked than it is when raw. A hole should be made in the centre of the top crust, or just within the border, that some of the steam may escape. This preserves the gravy or juice from boiling out. For a meat-pie, the meat should be cut in pieces, the size of two or three fingers, and seasoned with pepper and salt : some people like the addition of a small onion. A teacupful of broth or water to make gravy. For fruit-pies, a little more moist sugar or treacle will draw the juice ; no other liquor is required. A small cup turned down in the middle sucks in the juice, and when raised, will be found quite full of syrup that would otherwise have boiled out. For a common family pie, clean apples do very well without peeling. This is a great saving of time, and makes the fruit go farther. They may be cut in quarters or left whole. Whether peeled or not, it is not a good way to cut them in thin slices. They bake much better in the thickness of a quarter of an apple. If each quarter is cut in half crosswise, the core may be removed easily and without waste.

For baking pastry, the oven should be of a moderate heat ; not slow, or the crust will not rise well ; and not quick enough to scorch it. A meat-pie requires longer and slower doing than a fruit-pie ; and a pie of apples, rhubarb, green gooseberries, plums, or damsons, rather longer than ripe currants or raspberries. The time must also be regulated by the size, or rather thickness of the article. A deep pie, with a thick crust, and raw meat, will take full two

hours' baking ; a pie of ripe fruit, with a thin light crust, not more than one. For those who have a garden, a fruit pie is not an expensive luxury ; and even in towns, when the fruit has to be bought, it is a much cheaper and more substantial treat than 'ha'p'orths of suckers or peppermints' with which children are often indulged by parents, who say they cannot afford to make pastry.

TURNOVERS, PUFFS, OR PATTIES, (the same thing under different names,) are a handy form of pastry, convenient for those who have to carry a meal with them, and want something that may be easily put up, and eaten without knife, fork, or plate. The inside may be fruit, either fresh or preserved, or meat cut small and seasoned. This is a good way of re-warming meat that is underdone, or clearing up odd bits of any kind. The crust for turnovers should be about one-third of an inch thick, in pieces of five or six inches square ; lay the contents on one-half the paste, turn over the other, press the edges closely together, and bake on a tin or flat dish.

In small families with whom it is an object to make the best of everything, an occasional clearing up in the form of pastry makes an agreeable variety, and comes in well for breakfast or supper. A pleasant article of this kind is made by covering a flat dish (previously greased) with a thin layer of paste : spread over it any kind of cold meat cut small, and seasoned, with the addition of a few spoonfuls of bread-crumbs, a little good gravy, or lemon-peel, grated or shaved thin, or a grate of nutmeg, if approved. Lay on an upper crust, and bake one hour.

BAKED APPLE-DUMPLINGS.—The paste is generally made with suet, but any other kind of fat will do. Roll out the crust as for turnovers, cut up in pieces of a size to enclose a whole apple, which may be peeled or otherwise. Roll it round lightly between the hands, that every part of the apple may be securely enclosed, and the crust of an equal thickness throughout.

AMERICAN OVENS.—The American Oven is a contrivance for baking in front of the fire and is a great improvement on the old Dutch oven. It is a neat compact article, and being placed on a footman or trivet may, without litter or inconvenience, be set before a common sitting-room fire, as well as in a kitchen. This renders it convenient to families with whom it is an object not to have an additional fire on purpose for cooking. Indeed, it is a thing so often coming in use, and for such a variety of purposes, that it may be almost called a servant of all work. It is equally well adapted for baking puddings, pies, and pastry in general; meat, from a single chop to a large joint, in which all the advantages of roasting are obtained with much less trouble and expense; and bread and cakes of all descriptions. The oven itself is of bright tin, and divided into two spaces, sloping towards the fire, and nearly meeting at the back, somewhat in the form of an open book. The lower half is supported by a frame or stand. The upper half lifts up as a lid. The ends are closed in with bright tin. In the middle is a sort of frame on which to lodge a tray of thin black iron, containing the articles to be baked. The size of these ovens varies from that of a mere cheese-toaster to a capacity for receiving a large joint of meat, and the price from 3s. to 12s. For meat, neither basting nor turning is required. The only thing to be attended to is to place the oven at a proper height and proper distance from the fire. The reflected heat from the bright tin above and below acts equally from every part, and thoroughly does the meat without drying it, at the same time producing a fine light brown over the surface. The dripping, also, is kept beautifully clean.

For stews, or any thing requiring long and slow doing, the American oven does not answer so well as a side oven, or common brick oven; but for every other purpose it is greatly preferable. Even a large ham may be baked in perfection, by which means a

large quantity of clear dripping is saved, and the ham rendered much more tender and juicy than by boiling. Those who have used the American oven for the last seven or eight years, wonder how they could get along before this happy invention.

But let it not be forgotten, that it is essential to the well-doing of the American oven that the INSIDE of the tin, both above and below, be kept perfectly bright, otherwise the power of reflecting heat is lost. This important matter is sometimes overlooked by persons who are very careful to keep the outside bright, that it may look well on the shelf.

CHAPTER VII.

VEGETABLES.

IT is an important branch of cottage economy, so to manage a garden as to keep the family constantly supplied with vegetables. By industry and good management in cropping, a small piece of land may be made to answer for this purpose. Those who have a small garden and are desirous of making the best of it, have, from time to time, been furnished with many interesting and useful hints in the *Family Economist*. One or two remarks may be added as to the gathering and storing of vegetables, for on these matters, their value and wholesomeness, as articles of food, greatly depend. All kinds of green vegetables should be used as fresh as possible, that is, as soon as may be after they are gathered. If kept indoors they soon become flabby, stale, and unwholesome. Vegetables are to be gathered in the cool of the morning or evening, not when the sun is powerful. As soon as gathered, they are to be put in a cool shady place, such as on the bricks or stones of a cellar or dairy, until wanted for use. The outer leaves of cabbages, lettuce, and such like, should not be pulled off until the last minute, as they keep the hearts moist. Vegetables after gathering should never be put in water to keep them fresh, or rather to keep up an appearance of freshness. Though often practised, both in private kitchens, and in inferior shops, especially with radishes, lettuce, cucumbers, and small salad, it is always objectionable, and renders the thing unwholesome.

Roots which are stored for winter use should at-

tain perfect maturity before they are removed from the ground; but not be suffered to remain long afterwards, lest, if the weather be damp, a second growing should ensue. Dry weather should be chosen for digging and housing roots. Various methods are adopted for preserving roots in the winter. Some people who have plenty of cellar room to spare, make a regular winter garden of sand, in which they lay carrots, parsnips, beet-roots, celery, endive, &c. Some keep their potatos in trenches of earth; others merely stack them in a dry out-house. Whatever plan be adopted, it is essential to preserve them from frost, from damp, and from dry heat. Onions should be roped and hung up. Herbs, (mint, balm, sage, thyme, &c.,) should be cut in dry weather, just before they begin to flower, and dried in the wind; that is, not in a sunny window, but suspended in a shady room, through which a current of air passes. When dry, they should be enclosed in paper bags, to preserve them from dust, or the leaves carefully picked from stalk, rubbed to powder, and kept in glass bottles in a dry place.

Persons who have to buy their vegetables will do well to be particular in getting them fresh, which may be known by their feeling crisp, and having the dew or bloom resting upon them, which after a few hours will pass away. Green peas, if fresh gathered, will snap on shelling, and the peas appear moist and glossy. If the shells are flabby, they must be considered as stale. The same remark applies to broad-beans, and kidney-beans. The buyers of vegetables should especially avoid such as have been kept in water.

To CLEAN VEGETABLES FOR THE TABLE:—Avoid making them dirty by shaking the roots among the heads, or by suffering them to be laid together in a basket. If fresh gathered, and perfectly free from insects and dirt, vegetables preserve their colour in boiling much better when not previously wetted. If blighted, or in any respect dirty, remove all that can

be removed before wetting ; that is, trim away the outside leaves and roots, leaving no more than is to be actually boiled and eaten. This applies to cabbage, brocoli, and cauliflowers. Summer cauliflowers, in particular, require great attention, as they abound with slugs and caterpillars. Having carefully trimmed them, let them lie an hour or more in a pan of spring water and salt. Observe to plunge them into the water, not to pump or pour water upon them, which would make them flabby. Immediately before putting them into the saucepan, take them out of the water and shake them well in a colauder or thin straining cloth, that every drop of cold water may run off. In trimming vegetables do not be too saving ; one tough outside leaf will spoil a whole dish : strip till you come to tender quick-grown leaves ; and in cabbages, shave the stem, and also the stalks of the outer leaves. Salad and radishes should be washed in water without salt. Celery requires half-an-hour or more to soak. A brush, somewhat resembling a plate brush, is very useful in cleaning the root end of celery.

Green-peas, French-beans, and broad-beans, require no washing. They should be cut or shelled just before boiling. It sometimes, however, happens to suit to shell peas an hour or two earlier ; if so, they should be covered with the shells, and placed on the stones or bricks in a shady room.

Asparagus, if quite fresh, need not be washed : tie them with bass or tape, in bundles of twenty-five or thirty each, making all the heads lie level, and cut the stalks to an equal length.

Turnip-greens, if cleanly gathered, and carefully trimmed, need no washing. Only the hearts and stems are to be used. The latter should be skinned. But turnip-greens grown on sandy land, especially after heavy rains, require to be washed in several waters.

Spinach should be picked leaf by leaf, and washed in several waters, and afterwards thoroughly drained.

The stalks of white-beet for boiling, as well as those of rhubarb for pies or puddings, should be skinned.

Red beet roots should be well washed and scrubbed, but not scraped with a knife, as that would discharge the rich juice and the bright colour. Potatos and Jerusalem artichokes should be scrubbed with a birch-broom or scrubbing-brush, and washed very clean, just before boiling. They should not be wetted at all till they are about to be used. Carrots and parsnips should be well scrubbed and washed. After boiling, rub off the skins with a coarse cloth. New potatos are done in the same manner. In Spring, when potatos become old and specky, it is better to peel them raw; carefully removing the specks. This must be done with a knife. Afterwards rinse the potatos, and either steam them, or boil for mashing, or for browning under meat.

Onions, Leeks and Shallots.—Take off as many coats of the skin as are at all slimy or tough. For roasting—onions should not be skinned or washed, but merely wiped from dust. Young spring onions are served with the green tops; merely the roots and one thin skin being removed. Artichokes should be soaked an hour or more before boiling.

To DRESS VEGETABLES.—One general set of rules may serve for all green vegetables. 1. A tin saucepan that shuts close, large enough to allow plenty of water. 2. The water fast boiling the moment of putting in the vegetables, but not having boiled before, nor been allowed to stand on the hob. The quicker the water comes to boil at first, and again when the vegetables are put in, the sooner they become tender, and the better they preserve their colour. 3. A brisk fire that will cause the water to boil up again quickly. 4. A small quantity of common salt to be put in *with* the vegetables—not before. A table-spoonful of salt is sufficient for a large dressing of greens; half that quantity for peas. 5. The instant the vegetables are put in, shut the lid

close, and do not lift it up again until it is forced up by rapid boiling ; when this is the ease, remove it, and do not return it again. 6. When the vegetables are nearly done, have quite ready a colander and slice or wire-ladle, with which to take them up ; do not pour the water through them, but carefully lift them out with the ladle into the colander. 7. Shake them carefully in the colander to drain, before putting them into the vegetable dish. Spinach should be pressed between two trenehers.

N.B.—The boiling of green vegetables may be expedited, the colour preserved, and if they are old and tough, they may be made tender, by putting in with them a *small quantity* of soda : half a teaspoonful of carbonate of soda, or a bit of washing-soda, the size of a small hazel-nut, is enough for a moderate dressing. This is not suitable for potatos or roots in general, it spoils their colour, though it improves that of greens.

AS TO THE TIME REQUIRED FOR BOILING.—The great art is to let vegetables boil till they are perfectly tender, but to take them up before they become at all watery. In this state vegetables are most wholesome and digestible, as well as most agreeable. Young cabbage plants and sprouts, whether of kale, Brussels sprouts, or cabbage, will take from fifteen to twenty minutes' boiling. Large, full grown cabbages and savoys, three-quarters-of-an-hour or more : when a fork will easily run up the main-stalk they are done. Brocoli and cauliflower.—If several heads are boiled together, they should be chosen nearly of a size ; according to their size they will take from a quarter to three-quarters-of-an-hour ; about twenty minutes for a moderate sized head—the tenderness of the stem is a test for the whole ; take them up carefully to avoid bruising the heads. Peas do not require so large a quantity of liquor to boil in as greens, but it is important that it should boil fast at first, and boil up again quickly. A few tops of young mint are generally boiled with peas,

and a small lump of sugar may be put in with the salt. From fifteen to twenty minutes will boil them; if kept fast boiling the whole time, when done enough they will all sink. The same rule applies to broad beans, which require from twenty to thirty minutes' boiling; a bunch of parsley is generally boiled with them. Asparagus require from twelve to twenty minutes; they must be carefully taken up the moment they are tender, or their colour and flavour will be injured, and the heads broken; they are generally served on buttered toast. Artichokes require long boiling, according to their size, seldom less than an hour, often more; they may be tried by pulling a leaf, if it comes out easily, the artichokes are done. Spinach requires seven or eight minutes' boiling; strain it on the back of a sieve, and press dry between two plates or trenchers; it is often served with poached eggs and buttered toast, or slices of fried bread. Turnip-greens take five or six minutes' boiling. Turnips—to be peeled and cut up when raw; put them into fast boiling water with a little salt. Small garden turnips require from twenty to thirty minutes' boiling; large field turnips from half-an-hour to an hour, rather longer if for mashing; press out all the water, return them to the saucepan, stir in a bit of butter, and a little pepper and salt; if boiled in broth or with meat, rather less time for boiling will be sufficient. Carrots—young carrots—the size of large radishes—will boil in twenty minutes; as they advance in size, a longer time is required; and old store carrots take from one to two hours' boiling. Parsnips—three-quarters-of-an-hour and upwards, according to size. French beans—Choose them young, quick-grown, and nearly of a size; slit them down the middle, and cut in half; if at all old, draw off the strings from the edges. For young beans, fast boiling, from ten minutes to a quarter-of-an-hour. Parsley, fast boiling three or four minutes. Vegetable-marrow, from twenty minutes and upwards, according to its

size, it is easily tested, as soon as it sticks tender, it is done. Onions.—large onions take a full hour to boil; Portugal onions, two hours; put them into boiling-liquor, with a little salt; if it be desired to have them very mild, when they are half done, drain off the liquor, and put as much fresh boiling; the liquor may be changed twice or more; when done, drain them dry, and beat up with a little butter, pepper, salt and milk. Onions may be roasted either in front of the fire, in a side-oven, in the embers of a wood-fire, or in or under a copper-hole or oven. Fried onions should be cut in slices, the thickness of a penny piece; put them in the frying pan, with a little water and salt; let them boil three or four minutes, drain off the water, add an ounce of butter or dripping, and a dust of flour, and fry till brown on both sides.

POTATOES.—For boiling, choose such as are of equal size. Set them on with cold water, and a spoonful of salt, in an iron saucepan that will allow an inch or two above the potatos. The water at first need not quite cover them—keep the lid off—on coming to boil, check with a little cold water two or three times. When a fork will easily go into them, drain off the water, and stand the saucepan on the hob; by this plan they will become dry and mealy. Peel the moment before serving. For the sake of keeping them hot, some people prefer having them sent to table in their skins.

To steam—they may be done in their skins, or peeled raw; and if intended for mashing, the latter is preferable. The steamer should be set over when the water boils in the saucepan beneath; about three-quarters of an hour will be sufficient. They should be taken up as soon as done, or they become watery. Potatos are often spoiled by letting them stand in water before cooking. It may suit to get them ready an hour or two before it is time to boil them, and they may be set in the saucepan quite ready to set on, but the water should never be added

till the moment of setting them on the fire. Nor when it can be avoided, should they be washed long before hand. People who buy a peck of potatoes sometimes find the first dressing excellent, but all the rest very inferior. The reason is, they were all washed at once; perhaps several days before using.

Potatoes may be roasted in a side-oven, or an American oven, or cheese-toaster, or under the embers of a wood fire—or in a vessel contrived on purpose. It is of wrought-iron, its form resembling that of a candle-box. The potatoes are shut in, and the whole suspended over the fire. Experience will best decide the proper distance at which to place them. Two hours will do them thoroughly; if previously scalded a less time will suffice.

Mashed potatoes—when thoroughly boiled or steamed, drain dry, peel, pick out every speck, and while hot rub through a colander, or press with a spoon.—This should be done in a clean saucepan—add a little pepper and salt, from half an ounce to one ounce of butter, and a table-spoonful of milk; stand on the hob till the moment of serving;—or they may be set in front of the fire, or in a side-oven, and browned.

For browning under roast-meat, potatoes should be half boiled, then peeled, and put in the dripping hot. From an hour to an hour and a-half will do them nicely; they may be done in the same manner under a baked joint. The par-boiling, and putting them under the meat hot, are essential, as preventing both needless waste of dripping, and checking the meat by their steam, as well as securing their being thoroughly done. Parsnips are excellent, done in the same manner: they may be previously scalded.

Fried Potatoes—These also should be previously par-boiled, if not left as cold potatoes from a previous meal; they may be cut in slices quarter of an inch thick, and fried in a little clear dripping—both sides of a fine brown. Some people like to shave them up in thin bits, and with a little pepper and salt, shake

them about in the pan till hot through — but the former method does them more uniformly brown and crisp.

Jerusalem Artichokes—Skin them raw. Put in boiling water, and boil twenty minutes. They must be drained the moment they are tender, or they soon become watery.

Red Beet-roots require longer boiling than potatos —according to the size of the roots, from three-quarters of an hour and upwards. They are excellent baked and eaten with cold butter or dripping and salt. Large roots require two hours to bake.

CHAPTER VIII.

HINTS ON THE ORDINARY MODES OF DRESSING MEAT.

BOILING.—The vessel in which meat is boiled should be large enough to allow the liquor to flow all round it, and to contain a sufficient quantity to last the whole time of boiling. If the lid shuts close so as to keep in all the steam, boiling heat may be kept up, with less fire, and the meat is done through in less time than if the steam be suffered to escape. For these reasons some people use a digester, which is steam tight. The water should be perfectly clean and fresh ; soft water is preferable where the object is not only to boil the meat, but also to make broth—but spring water causes the meat to retain the juice. The more effectually to secure the juice, the meat may be put into boiling liquor at first, and after about three minutes' boiling, as much cold liquor may be added as will bring it to the needful heat—or it may be put, at first, into liquor of this warmth, and then allowed from half-an-hour to three-quarters to come gradually to boil. Boiling does not require so fierce a fire as roasting. It is better to allow plenty of time and keep a moderate fire. If the fire is large and fierce, the pot in which meat is boiling should be kept partly aside, or hung pretty high. Hasty boiling hardens meat : yet it should not be suffered to stop boiling, otherwise there is no certainty as to time, and the colour of the meat is injured. The scum which rises when meat is beginning to boil must be carefully removed. The time to be allowed is from a quarter-of-an-hour to twenty minutes for each pound of meat, to be reckoned for actual boiling.

Meat that is fresh killed requires rather longer boiling than that which has hung a few days ; and rather longer in cold weather than in hot. If a joint of meat have been frozen, it should be plunged in cold water for at least two hours before exposing it to the action of heat, otherwise it will never be done through. This remark applies to meat for roasting as well as for boiling. If meat be very salt, it is improved by removing the liquor when it has boiled a few minutes, and replacing it with fresh. Salt meat, if done rather earlier than it is wanted, is not injured by being set aside in the liquor. A string, with a loop, tied round a joint, serves to take it out by, without sticking a fork into the meat, which lets out the gravy. A tea-cupful of the liquor is to be poured into the dish for gravy.

STEWING.—On this branch of cookery ample directions have been already given which need not be repeated. The following rules from a celebrated French Chemist may be stored in memory as principles to be observed, as far as circumstances admit, in application to the process generally :—

1. Have fine healthy meat, sufficiently bled (that is, free from bloody veins.)

2. Earthen or stone vessels are preferable to those of metal, because they are not so powerful conductors of heat ; yet being once thoroughly heated, retain the heat for a longer time. Hence, when once brought to boiling heat, a few cinders will keep up as strong boiling as is requisite or desirable.

3. The quantity of water should be double in weight to that of the meat. On this rule a quart of water to a pound of meat, which in stewing will diminish one-half—but this is very rich—more so than most people can afford. If liquor be used in which meat has been previously boiled, less meat is required to enrich the stew.

4. A sufficient quantity of common salt to separate the bloody particles and cause them to rise in the form of scum. To be added just as the stew comes to boil.

5. Such a temperature of heat as will keep up a quick boil as long as the scum rises, which must be carefully cleared off.

6. When the scum is all removed, a lower temperature, which must be uniformly continued, and keep up a gentle simmer till all the nourishing, colouring, and flavouring properties of the meat are thoroughly combined with the liquor.

HASHING.—As hashes are made of meat already nearly done enough, a very little time should be allowed, or the meat becomes hard and impoverished. To make the gravy, clear the bones from meat and marrow, break them and boil down in liquor that has previously boiled meat, or not having that, in water with two onions (if approved) and a bit of toasted bread. Some people like the substance of the onions—others like only the flavour.—When the whole has boiled half-an-hour or more, strain off: remove fat and scum, and return liquor to the saucepan, with or without the onions. Cut the meat in thin slices, and slantwise, each slice about the breadth of a finger, and half the length, and not thicker than the rind of pork. Let the meat be well floured, and seasoned with pepper and salt, with or without the addition of a spoonful or two of ketchup and a little cold gravy. Stir the whole into the saucepan, shaking it well to prevent sticking, and let it simmer over the fire just long enough to thicken the gravy. Lay round the dish sippets of toasted bread. To the hash of an ox heart, some of the seasoning should be added. The hash of hare should have only its own gravy and seasoning, without the addition of onions or ketchup. The hash of a calf's head requires much longer time to do. It must not be long over the fire, but may stand on the hob half-an-hour or more, either before it boils or after, that the gristly parts may be thoroughly heated. Minced veal requires neither onions nor ketchup. The meat should be chopped small, well floured—a little salt sprinkled among it & pepper; a grate of nutmeg or lemon peel may be

added. Stir to the gravy as above, and serve as soon as the gravy thickens. Sippets as for a hash.

ROASTING.—The fire should be made up at first so as to last the whole time of roasting. For a large joint, this should be done nearly an hour before putting down the meat. Lay the large pieces of coal so as to secure them from falling out, and to admit a draught of air round them. By this means they will become thoroughly heated before the fire need be stirred at all. Before putting down the meat, gently raise the coals, introducing the poker between the lower bars. Throw at the back a shovel or two of cinders, or cinders and small coal mixed, and well wetted. This prevents waste of fuel, and also throws out a good heat in front. The meat-screen should now be put in front, as it helps to draw up the fire ; and should itself become thoroughly heated before the meat is put down, that it may strike heat to the joint. Reflected heat never dries or scorches meat, but greatly promotes its being thoroughly and hot done. The dripping-pan is to be carefully placed, neither so near the fire as for the ashes to fall in, nor so far off as to allow the meat to drip out. If a spit is used, it should be slid in along the bones ; but if the roasting be done by means of a vertical jack or a string, the hook should be put in so as to take in a bone ; both to secure against tearing the meat, and suffering the juice to escape. The thickest part of the meat should be downwards, and a little below the fire, as the heat strikes downwards. All meat should be basted for some time after it is put down. Lean parts (such as pork griskin or poultry) will require basting the whole time of roasting—but large fat joints only till their own fat begins to drop out. For a large thick joint the fire should be but gradually advancing to briskness, that the meat may become thoroughly heated before it begins to brown ; but for thin and tender meat (such as a neck of lamb, or for poultry) the fire, though comparatively small, should be brisk and clear from the first putting down.

The time usually allowed for roasting is a quarter-of-an-hour to a pound. Most joints require rather longer. The meat should be more than half done before it is salted at all. The dripping also had better be poured off, as for pastry and similar purposes it is preferable without salt. When this is being attended to, the ashes should be cleared from the bottom bar, and if need be, the fire made up. On returning the meat, sprinkle over a little salt, to be repeated or not according to the size of the joint. When nearly done, dredge a little flour, and put the meat nearer the fire, that it may become brown. See that every part is of a fine pale brown and no part scorched. When the meat is done through, it will steam to the fire. Then pour off the dripping—but leave such as is pure gravy. Have ready a tea-cupful of boiling water, or broth, with which rinse round the dripping-pan, and strain it into the dish for gravy. N.B.—For rind pork the gravy must not be poured over the meat—but aside in the dish—as it would take off the crispness of the rind. Roasting performed in an American oven takes less time—supposing the fire to be equal, say twenty minutes instead of half-an-hour—according to the size of the joint.

BROILING.—To make up a suitable fire. One hour before time have a strong coal fire, not over large; throw on the top a shovel or two of good cinders, well sifted from ashes, and slightly wetted. By the time the fire is wanted, they will have burned up and be red and clear as charcoal. Set on the gridiron, and when the bars are hot through, wipe them thoroughly clean with rag or paper, and rub with a morsel of suet or dripping, to preserve the meat from sticking. The thickness of meat for broiling should be from half-an-inch to three quarters. If thinner, it will be dried up; if thicker, the outside will be brown before the middle is done enough. Meat, in general, should be often turned on the gridiron, and with a small pair of tongs rather than a fork, which lets out the juice. The skirts of beef should only be

turned once, when half done. A little pepper and salt on each side when nearly done. Never cut the meat to try whether it is done. It may be known by the smell, and also by the steaming out of the meat. Have ready dish and plates well hot, and serve quickly. Rub a bit of butter on the meat in the dish to draw the gravy. Shalot, ketchup, or other sauce if used at all, should be put in the dish before the meat is put there ; but the more simple plan is generally preferred. Broiling is not an economical mode of cookery—but the most wholesome for invalids and young children.

FRYING.—The fire should be clear and brisk—rather stronger than for broiling, but free from blaze. The pan should be sufficiently large for the meat to lie flat at the bottom, but not much larger, or there is a waste of fat. If the meat to be fried is fat, scarcely any fat need be added, merely enough to grease the bottom of the pan and prevent sticking ; but dry lean meat, (such as veal cutlets,) will require rather more fat, either dripping or lard, unless bacon rashers, which will answer the purpose, be fried with them. Salt fat, (*i.e.* such as has settled on the liquor of boiled salt meat) is apt to fly, and therefore not suitable for frying. The fat that has been used for frying will serve again and again for the same purpose ; but is rather apt to become strong and discoloured, and therefore not so fit for pastry as the dripping of roast meat. Meat for frying should be slightly salted, peppered, and floured. When done, lay it in a hot dish ; pour off the fat, and make gravy by putting in the pan half a tea-cupful (or more) of cold gravy, broth, or water—(a spoonful of ketchup if approved)—a bit of butter, the size of a walnut, rolled in as much flour as it will carry, set the whole over the fire, keeping the pan well shaken. When the gravy is thick and smooth, pour it over the meat and serve directly. If onions or other seasonings are to be prepared, put them in the pan immediately

after the meat is removed, adding at the same time a little pepper and salt. When they are browned, pour off the fat and make the gravy as above. For frying fish more fat is required than for any other frying, and it must perfectly boil when the fish is put in, otherwise the fish will both stick and break, and will not brown. Fish should be perfectly dry and thickly dredged with flour or coarse oatmeal ; the latter takes a finer brown. The fat that has fried fish may be used many times in succession, but is not fit for any other purpose. Liver should be fried over a very moderate fire, as it is very apt to fly. Bacon should be scalded a minute or two in water in the frying-pan. When the fat begins to run and become transparent, pour off the liquor, and brown in its own fat. Eggs may be fried in the same fat. Each egg should be separately and carefully broken into a tea-cup, and gently poured into the frying-pan, that each yolk may remain unbroken in the centre of the white. When the whole of the white is set, and the underneath part of a pale brown, take up each separately with a slice. Fish, too, should be turned, and taken up with a slice.

BAKING.—Meat that is to be baked should have a little salt and flour sprinkled over, a little dripping stuck over the top, and a spoonful or two of water in the tin or dish. If sent to a baker's oven, the only thing is to let him have it in good time ; he is best judge when to put it in. If done at home, allow about the same time as for roasting. The baking dish or tin should be four or five inches deep, excepting for a sucking pig, for which a shallow tin is preferable, that the rind may be crisp. If potatoes are baked under meat a longer time must be allowed, as the steam somewhat hinders the progress of the cooking. Amongst the things that answer for baking, may be mentioned—all kinds of hearts, which are really better baked than roasted, a pig's head, a spare rib, or whirly-bone, hare, rabbit, and sucking-pig. These

will require good bastings and frequent turning.—Geese, and ducks, should be laid first with the breast downwards, and turned when half done. Many kinds of fish, such as eel, pike, haddock, plaice, &c., with stuffing of bread crumbs, seasoned, either put within or sprinkled among them. A ham is better baked than boiled, and keeps longer after dressing. It requires a moderate oven, rather slow than quick.

CHAPTER IX.

BREAD, CAKES, AND BUNS.

OF all articles of household provision bread is the most important. It forms a principal part of daily food at all seasons of the year—at all stages of life, from infancy to old age—and under almost all circumstances and states of health. It is justly called “the staff of life.” There is no one other thing so absolutely needful to nourishment and health. Such being the case, it becomes a matter of great importance that bread should be good—that is, made of proper materials and in a proper manner. Every woman ought thoroughly to understand this business. And yet a great many do not; it may, in fact, be said there are comparatively few who do. Though it is generally admitted that *good* home-made bread is always preferable to ordinary baker’s bread, most people use only the latter from a notion that making bread at home is a very mysterious and laborious business. Certainly among those who attempt it, there is often a miserable failure in the performance—and their ill-shapen, heavy, sour-smelling loaves, are an object of ridicule to the baker (if sent out to bake) and of disgust to the family condemned to eat them. Such need not be the case. We venture to say, not as a matter of theory, but as the result of actual and habitual experience, that by attention to the simple rules, about to be given, a family of any number may be provided with palatable and wholesome bread, with as great certainty, and scarcely more trouble, than they find in preparing their daily pudding.

GENERAL REMARKS.—MATERIAL.—Wheaten flour is without dispute the most nutritious. What is called “fine flour,” is seldom used except for fancy breads, and is not so wholesome as the coarser sorts. The flour commonly used for making bread is called “seconds,” or “household.” Proper brown bread is made from undressed wheat-meal. Whatever flour is used, home-made bread is not as white as baker’s bread, because the latter is almost always rendered so by the use of alum, pearl-ash, or something of that kind, which, to say the least, is by no means agreeable or beneficial.

It is of great importance to have pure flour—that is, free from adulteration—really to have what is professedly sold. Those who would succeed in making good bread, must find a miller or mealman on whom they can depend for the genuineness of the article. Flour should be kept in a very dry place; if at all damp, it soon becomes sour and unwholesome; it should be covered over, to preserve it both from dust and vermin. It is the better for being kept a month or six weeks after grinding, for this reason, some people keep two flour tubs, and have one filled as soon as they begin to use the other.

Oatmeal, when it can be depended on as pure and good, answers very well for mixing with flour. For this purpose fine (not Scotch) oatmeal should be used. One-third oatmeal, with two-thirds flour, will form an agreeable and very wholesome bread.

Barley is sometimes used for bread; it is coarse and not so satisfying as the better sorts of grain. Rye alone makes very clammy bread. A cheap and good bread may be made of wheat, rye and barley, in equal parts, to be mixed with milk.

Potatoes are frequently used in bread, almost universally so by bakers, and mixed in proper proportions with flour, they make the bread light and pleasant. They are often used as a matter of economy—this can scarcely be thought of in seasons when the potato disease unhappily prevails, and

scarcity and high price in consequence—but when potatos are plentiful and cheap, some people make their bread with an equal weight of potato and flour. Two-thirds flour and one third potatos is a better proportion, or even three-quarters flour and one quarter potatos.

Rice and sago are sometimes used in making bread; rice soaks up a large quantity of water, and greatly increases in weight, hence it is that rice is found profitable. The price per pound being much more than that of flour, it would not answer, unless it more than doubled its own weight by the quantity of water it absorbs. One-sixth part of rice is a good proportion—that is, whatever quantity of rice is used, there must be five-times as much of flour. The rice properly managed (as will be presently directed) will bring the bread to a greater weight than seven parts of flour without rice; thus, ten pounds of flour and two pounds of rice will produce a greater weight of bread than fourteen pounds of flour alone.

Sago is used in the same manner as rice, it is considerably lower in price, (thus when best rice is 5d., best sago is 3d. or $3\frac{1}{2}$ d.) It does not add an equal proportion in weight, but is liked by some people on account of its flavour, and moist quality, which it retains a considerable time;—though in this particular all home-made bread has an advantage over baker's bread, which is stale at three days' old; and the whiter it is, the sooner it becomes harsh and dry, but good home-made bread will keep fresh and moist a week or more.

FERMENTATION OR RAISING.—The common method of raising bread is by means of yeast. The best yeast is whitish, solid, and free from liquid at top. The yeast from beer of moderate strength is preferable to that of very strong beer; it answers all good purposes, and is less apt to be bitter. Yeast should be used fresh; if it be kept long, the fermentative power is lost, and it soon becomes putrescent; it can seldom be kept good beyond a week, and is better

the first three or four days than the last ; if kept at all, it should be in a cool moist place, as a cellar. Yeast is sometimes said to be "bitter,"—to impart a perceptible and disagreeable bitterness to the bread. If this bitterness be produced from hops only, it may be cured by straining the yeast through bran ; or by dipping into it a piece of red-hot charcoal : or by covering it with fresh spring water, which, after standing two or three hours, is to be poured off, and fresh water added. So continue changing the water from time to time, till the yeast is wanted for use. This method must not be carried on too long, or it will weaken the fermentative power of the yeast. Yeast that is bitter in consequence of the beer being drugged, cannot be cured by these methods, nor probably by any other. Within the last few years, a method of raising bread without yeast has been pretty extensively adopted. The desired end is effected by the use of chemical preparations, such as carbonate or bicarbonate of soda, and muriatic acid ; or by ready prepared combinations of those articles, or others of like properties. Some persons constantly use these preparations, and altogether give up the use of yeast : others for ordinary use, prefer good yeast, when it can be readily obtained, but reckon the bread-powders very convenient for occasional use ; and for cakes really preferable to yeast. These powders must be kept in an extremely dry place, or they soon lose their virtue.

SALT.—A portion of common salt is used in making bread, more or less is a matter of taste ; from two to three ounces to a peck of flour, is the ordinary proportion. When the baking-powders are used, a smaller quantity of salt suffices ; and with soda and muriatic acid little or no salt is added, because the combination of those articles produces what is chemically called muriate of soda, or common salt.

LIQUID.—Yeast bread should always be mixed with water or other liquid a little warm—that is of

a pleasant warmth to a delicate hand ; by no means either hot or cold. Milk makes the bread eat short and pleasant, but causes it to become dry and harsh sooner than if mixed with water only, or with water of rice, bran or sago ; it is not generally used, except in small bread intended for immediate use. If rice or sago be used in bread, the liquor in which these are boiled serves well for mixing. Bread is greatly improved, and some saving effected, by the use of bran-water thus prepared—bran, one quart ; water, one gallon ; boil till reduced to three quarts, strain, and when reduced to a proper warmth, use for mixing. N.B. The bran will serve as food for poultry, rabbits, or pigs, or for manure. Bread raised by the chemical substances above-mentioned, is always to be wetted with cold liquid.

BAKING.—In some parts of the country where wood-fuel is easily obtained, most houses are furnished with a brick oven. The quality of bread greatly depends on proper management in heating the oven. It is requisite that the fire be strong, brisk, and uniform, and that the oven be so equally heated in every part as to keep up a sufficient heat the whole time required to complete the baking. The oven-door should be made to shut very close, and, as much as possible, be kept closely shut, that no draught of air may be admitted. While the oven is heating, the door must be opened frequently for the purpose of stirring and moving about the fuel, but this must be done as quickly as possible, and the door instantly shut. The same quickness must be observed in sweeping out the fire and putting in the loaves ; and when once they are in, the oven should be opened no more until they are done. For this reason, other things that require a shorter time, or attention in the way of turning, &c., should not be put in till the bread is taken out ; and the oven, if properly managed, will then be sufficiently hot for baking them ; if not, it would be better to renew the heat by a little fresh fuel, than to risk spoiling the

bread for the sake of baking other things at the same time.

The fuel for heating an oven should be very dry, and such as will heat through quickly. The stalky part of furze, and the brush-wood of faggots answer the purpose best. If larger wood is used (such as beech spokes and billets) they should be split in pieces about the thickness of a spade-handle. Coals are altogether improper ; so also are all knotty roots or greenwood. From one hour to an hour and a half is the time required for heating an oven ; nothing but experience can give aptitude and exactness in determining the proper heat ; when this is attained, every thing should be placed quite ready, that the business now to be proceeded with may be accomplished in the least possible time. Take out the fire, sweep the oven very clean, by means of a rag mop fastened to a long handle. Put in the loaves with a peel, that is, a flat shovel with a long handle ; it must be dusted with flour, between each time of putting in a loaf. Yet the whole operation of taking out the fire, cleaning the oven, putting in the bread, and shutting the door, should not take up five minutes ; as much less as possible. The heating of an oven costs from sixpence to a shilling, according to its size, and to the price of fuel ; neighbours can generally accommodate each other, and thus a saving is effected to all parties. But, observe, the longer the time elapses between the heatings of an oven, the longer it takes to bring it to a sufficient heat.

Persons who live near to an honest baker may find it quite as economical to send their bread to his oven ; the usual charge is a half-penny a loaf. The dough must be covered with a flannel or thick cloth, and carried very quickly, as the cold air checks its rising.

Those who neither have a regular oven, nor live near a bakehouse, may manage very well with an American oven, or a side-oven to a Yorkshire grate, or both those ovens at once, which will economise

fuel. But observe, a good fire should have been made up long enough before hand to heat the side-oven, and the American oven should have been placed in front a few minutes, to become hot before the bread is put in, and a good fire must be kept up the whole time of baking. For, if once the process slackens, an injury is done which no subsequent heat can remedy ; and, more or less, as the fire has been neglected, the bread, when it comes to be used, will seem insufficiently baked—“*puddingy*.” Two hours suffice for a quatern loaf. Bread baked in a side-oven, or American oven, will require looking at occasionally, and perhaps turning.

One more preliminary remark. The vessel in which the mixing and kneading is to be done should be placed at a convenient height, so as to give full command to the arms ; and the quantity of flour had better not be too large. Many people work up half a bushel at once or even more, but some experienced bread-makers find it better to knead a smaller quantity at once ; and certainly those who are not much accustomed to the business, will find a small quantity so much more manageable than a large one, that they may be recommended to begin with a half-peck, rather than a peck ; as the larger quantity takes full twice as long to knead as the smaller, there is no loss of time in dividing and doing it at twice. The kneading-vessel may be a wooden trough, or a pan, or platter ; a Nottingham ware milk-pan is very convenient for the purpose ; it should be large enough to allow plenty of room for moving about the hands, without danger of scattering over the flour.

PARTICULAR DIRECTIONS.—TO MAKE A HALF-PECK LOAF.—Half-a-peck of flour, half a small tea-cup full of yeast, a dessert-spoonful of salt, and three pints of water, will produce eight pounds twelve ounces of good bread ; this will be the proper stiffness for baking in tins. If the bread is to be baked on the oven bottom, rather less water must be allowed, or the dough will not keep in shape.

Put the flour into the kneading vessel ; with one finger make a hole in the middle, put in the salt, strain the yeast into the hole, through a very small colander or gravy-strainer of zinc or tin, or a coarse horse-hair sieve, adding a little of the intended liquor to carry the yeast through, then add the liquor, and knead it well ; if properly done, a few minutes will suffice for this operation, and the whole heap will be completely mixed and formed into a tough dough. If the bread is to be baked in tins, have them close at hand, and slightly greased to prevent sticking. Put the dough into the tins, each one about half-full ; cover up, and set them in a warm place to rise. From two to three hours will be a good time for the rising, before setting into the oven.

If to be baked without tins, the whole lump of dough may be set to rise in one, and so remain until just before going into the oven. Then divide into twice as many pieces as you mean to have of loaves, one-half the number being rather smaller than the others. Turn these pieces round in the hand (like dumplings) but do it lightly, and touch them as little as may be ; lay the smaller pieces at top of the larger, and get them into the oven quickly. If given out to be baked, the dough is usually sent in one lump, and the baker divides it into loaves.

Brown bread requires a *little* more yeast and a *little* more liquor, than that made of finer flour. Observe, brown bread is often recommended by medical men. When used as a matter of health, almost the only chance of succeeding, is by procuring the undressed meal, and making the bread at home. If bakers are applied to for brown bread they generally produce it by merely taking a portion of the regular dough, and sprinkling among it as much bran as will bring it to the colour required.

If potatoes are to be added, let them be well boiled or steamed. Then mash or rub them through a colander, and well mix them with the flour, by rub-

bind together with the hands; and pressed with a salt and working as above. The dough must be rather stiffer than if only flour were used. Say, for example, half a peck of flour, and two pounds of potatoe, will require only the same quantity of liquid as the same flour without potatoe.

If rice is to be added, boil it thoroughly, in the proportion of a gallon of water to one pound of rice. In boiling, the liquor will reduce to the quantity required; rub the rice in with the flour, and when the liquor is of a proper coolness, proceed with yeast, and mixing as above.

UNFERMENTED BREAD.—That is, bread raised with the chemical powders. To half a-peck of flour, add seven dessert-spoonful of the powder, and a little salt; rub well in with the flour, then wet with *cold water*; it may be mixed with the hand, or with a spoon or knife, but must be done lightly and quickly; one minute is enough to mix it well; it requires no kneading, but should immediately be got into the oven. This kind of bread should be made wetter than yeast bread:—say, stiffer than batter, but wetter than pie-crust; much too stiff to pour, but not stiff enough to roll.

BREAD-CAKES (in some parts of the country called bake-house cakes) to be eaten with batter either hot or cold. From the common bread dough take a piece, or as many pieces as may be required, and as the oven will hold, the size of a large dumpling: drop them a considerable distance apart, on the tray of an American oven. Let the tray stand in a moderately warm place—if in the oven, at a considerable distance from the fire—until the dough has risen well; then bake it directly.

OXFORD TEA-CAKES.—To each pound of flour, allow a dessert-spoonful of bread-powder, one egg, and half-a-pint of cream, or new milk, half a tea-spoonful of salt, and two tea-spoonful of loaf sugar powdered. Rub the dry things well together, then quickly mix in, first the cream, and then the egg; bake quickly

on buttered tins. N.B. If yeast be preferred, the milk should be a little warmed, and strained through the yeast as for bread ; add the egg last. Let the dough stand to rise, then bake half-an-hour in a quick oven.

BATH-ROLLS.—Dry before the fire half-a-quarter of fine flour, rub into it a tea-spoonful of salt, and a large table-spoonful of bread powder.

Rub with the hand to a cream, a quarter-pound of butter, or melt it over the fire, taking care that it does not oil : to this add three or four ounces of loaf sugar powdered (a little powdered cinnamon or all-spice may be added or omitted at pleasure, also five or six drops of tincture of saffron) mix these things well together, then add to them the flour, &c., and wet with cold milk. Bake on buttered tins in an American oven ; or if otherwise, in a quick oven ; when nearly done, wash over the top with milk, and scatter loaf sugar sifted.

DRIPPING-CAKES.—Dripping three quarters of a pound ; moist sugar, six ounces ; flour, two pounds ; salt, one tea-spoonful ; bread-powder, a large table-spoonful. Melt the dripping, mix well the sugar with it, then add the flour and bread-powder ; wet with cold milk, and bake immediately.

VERY NICE BUNS.—Flour, three pounds ; bread-powder, two heaped dessert-spoonsful ; salt, half tea-spoonful ; rub well together.

Melt, or work with the hand to a cream, a quarter-pound of butter ; add thereto and mix well a quarter-pound of sugar, either loaf or fine moist ; currants, six ounces (or caraway seeds half an ounce) and a little spice ; then add the flour, &c. ; wet with cold milk. Drop on the tray of an American oven in bits, the size of a very small dumpling, leaving plenty of room between ; bake immediately.

A GOOD FAMILY CAKE.—To each pound of flour, six ounces of dripping, lard, or butter, the same of currants, one ounce of candied peel cut small, a quarter-pound of moist sugar, dessert-spoonful of

bread-powder, half a tea-spoonful of salt, a little *spice*, (caraway seeds, if preferred to currants, quarter of an ounce,) and one egg. Melt or rub the fat to a cream, then add all the enriching ingredients, excepting eggs; mix well; next the flour and powder; wet with cold milk, leaving it stiff enough to receive the eggs, which add last of all; do it quickly, and bake it immediately in a buttered tin. N.B. This plan may be adapted to any variety of richness. Only observe the order of mixing: 1st, melt fat; 2nd, add enriching ingredients; 3rd, flour and powder; 4th, milk; 5th, eggs; 6th, bake directly.

CHAPTER X.

SALTING OR CURING MEAT.

GENERAL REMARKS.—Temperate weather is always preferable for salting meat. The extremes of heat and cold should be avoided. In very hot weather there is danger of the meat having acquired a taint before the salt can be applied to it, in which case it never properly imbibes the salt. This remark particularly applies to those parts of meat which contain glands or kernels. Neither does meat that is frozen yield to the operation of salt, and though, while the frost lasts, the meat will keep a considerable time uninjured, no sooner does a thaw commence than it becomes irrecoverably tainted.

The best season to salt meat, for long keeping, is from October to April. If the air be clear and fresh, *without frost*, the meat may hang a day, or at most two days, before salting ; but if the weather is frosty, the meat should be cut up, and the salt applied before the animal heat has left it. The same should be observed if it is required to salt a joint of meat for present use in summer.

It is a good way to apply the salt hot. This may easily be managed by putting it in a side oven, or in front of the fire in a Dutch or American oven, or at top in a clean frying-pan.

If different ingredients are to be used, they should be thoroughly mixed with the common salt before heating.

Sugar keeps meat as effectually as salt does, and does not dry the juices or harden the texture. In salting meat for present use, a mixture of sugar with

the salt is a great improvement. It should always be used in curing meat for long keeping (as bacon, hams, &c.)

Salt-petre more than any other salt hardens meat, and if much is used, effects such change upon it as nearly deprives it of its nutritive properties. Its only use is to give the meat a red colour; for this purpose a small quantity is sufficient, much less than is commonly applied.

Salting should be carried on in a moderately cool place through which a current of air may pass, but from which the rays of the sun are excluded, and which will admit of being shut in a severe frost.

The vessels suitable for meat-curing are:—

1. Of wood well pitched within. A large oblong square tray fixed on legs, or otherwise raised to a convenient height, is used for bacon salting. It should very slightly incline at one end, and a hole be made in the corner to let off the brine when required. This hole must be fitted with a cork or plug.

These things are often lined with lead, but the pitch is preferable, as lead in any form is more or less liable to be acted upon by salt, and may prove in some degree injurious. The pitch will require to be occasionally renewed, perhaps annually at the commencement of the salting season. Still it is far less expensive than lead, as well as more safe.

2. Deep pans expressly called salting-pans, and, according to the form, distinguished as "a ham-pan," "a tongue-pan," &c. These are glazed inside and out in a particular manner, by which they are rendered impervious to salt. Welsh-ware and Nottingham stone-ware answer equally well; but the common red pans and platters, though often used for the purpose, are altogether unsuitable. The salt acts upon the glazing, and causes it to peel off, by which the pan is spoiled, and the meat rendered gritty and disagreeable, if not injurious. Pans for salting are generally fitted with a wooden lid. The chief use

of this is to protect the meat from flies, which, however, may be as well done by tying over the pan a thin strainer cloth, and in one respect this is better, as it does not exclude the air; but those who are annoyed by mice and rats find it necessary to cover their meat with a wooden lid, and even to press down the lid with heavy weights.

As soon as meat for salting is brought in, it should be carefully cleared of all slime and blood, veins, pipes, and kernels. A young cook or housekeeper who has not been used to such matters, should ask the butcher whether there is a kernel in the piece of meat she is about to salt, and request him to remove it in her presence. Thus she will learn where to look for it another time, and how to remove it without mangling the meat. The hole made by removing a kernel should be filled with salt. Any part of meat that hangs as a flap should be lifted up, wiped underneath with a dry cloth, and filled with salt, so also any holes that may have been made with a skewer or hook. If the weather be at all warm, these parts should be searched with special care, lest any fly-blows be deposited there.

Meat that is to be used in a few days, may have the same salt throughout; but that which is intended for long keeping (as bacon, hams, &c.) should be lightly sprinkled with salt, and so left one day or two to draw out the blood. The brine thus drawn is to be taken away, and the meat thoroughly wiped, and put into a dry vessel for its final salting. This first brine, if suffered to remain, causes the bacon to turn rusty. It was formerly deemed necessary to rub in the salt, but it is now proved by science, and corroborated by experience, that this only hardens the meat, and that it is better simply to spread the surface of the meat with salt, and to turn it frequently—at least every day. A piece of beef may be turned upside down, and whatever portion of the salt remains unmelted, laid as a coat on the top; but meat that is covered with rind (as bacon and pork) must

be merely raised for the brine to flow under it, and the dry salt again collected, and laid on the top. If flitches or leg of pork are placed one above another, their position should be daily changed—the top one being put at bottom—but always with the rind downwards.

Brine may be used for several joints in succession; but when it is intended to put a fresh piece of meat in old brine, it should be covered with fresh salt, and a day or two allowed for that to penetrate the meat. Moreover, when there is much brine in the pan, the meat will not require so long salting as when only fresh salt is used. This should be borne in mind, or the meat will become too salt, and the liquor in which it is boiled be rendered useless, or nearly so.

Some people, instead of applying dry salt to their meat, boil the salt in water, and keep the meat completely immersed in pickle. This mode of salting has two recommendations:—The meat does not lose so much weight; and if it suits to keep it in the pickle several weeks, it does not become over-salted, as it would in the ordinary way. It is generally practised by the keepers of cooks'-shops and eating-houses, but is not found to answer so well in small families, who, when they boil a piece of salt meat, may have it in eat several days. The recipe for this pickle will be given below. As to the time required for salting meat, there are few pieces that are not sufficiently done in a week. A large leg of pork, or round or thick flank of beef, may be allowed ten days, but this time should not be exceeded; and for the thinner parts, a thin flank or brisket of beef, or a spring* of pork, four or five days will be sufficient.

If meat has been left too long in salt, it should be well washed before boiling; but even in this there is waste of goodness which had better be avoided by

* Called in some parts of the country, "a draught of pork," in others, "a breast and hand."

so contriving as that the meat shall not be over-salt at first. In general it is a safe rule to give it a day too little rather than a day too much.

This remark does not apply to meats intended for drying. They should remain in the brine long enough for every part to be thoroughly penetrated, otherwise, after a time, they taint at the bone. Five weeks is a good time to allow for bacon—from a month to six weeks for hams, according to their size; a neat's tongue, ten days; a calf's tongue, a week; a chine, according to size, from ten days to three weeks; pigs'-cheeks or chaps, a fortnight.

SALTING RECIPES.—For a moderate sized piece of meat, one pound of salt is sufficient, or three-quarters of a pound common salt and two ounces each of bay salt and coarse sugar, all rolled and dried. If a red colour is desired, add a half-ounce of saltpetre, and a half-ounce more of coarse sugar.

Hasty Salting.—By the following method, a large thick piece of meat may be sufficiently salted in twenty-four hours or less:—nearly fill a tub with fresh rain or river water. Lay across it two laths or thin sticks, on which place the meat, at about an inch distance from the water. Heap on the meat as much salt as will lie without scattering; so let it remain at least one whole night—next day it will be quite fit for boiling.

Pickle for Meat.—(as referred to above.)—To four gallons of water allow six pounds of salt, one pound of coarse sugar, and three ounces of saltpetre boil them together—carefully skim as long as any scum rises—leave it to become quite cold before putting to the meat. When two or three joints have been salted in succession, the pickle must be boiled up again, and carefully skimmed, one-third of the above ingredients having been added to renew its strength. Whenever this is done, the salting vessel should be well sealed, and thoroughly dried.

For Bacon.—The quantity of salt required for one hog is from five pounds to eight pounds, according to

the size. Some people use only common salt, but a mixture of coarse sugar or treacle with the salt is always to be preferred. The following are good proportions:—One third common salt, one-third bay salt, one-third coarse sugar or treacle, and to every pound of the whole a half-ounce of salt-petre. If two or more fitches are to be cured, this mixture of salt should be divided into so many portions, and spread over the inner side of each fitch as it is laid above another. The quantity specified is sufficient to do the hock chines, and cheeks, which can be placed at the end of the fitches, and so changed about that all may duly partake of the brine.

Some people use only bay salt. This is the Somersetshire method, and very excellent bacon is thus cured. First sprinkle the meat—after a day or two, wipe it dry. Let the tray or trough in which the curing goes on be also perfectly clean and dry. Take a fourth part of the whole quantity of bay salt allowed, and rub it well in. Repeat this the third successive days, each time changing the order of the fitches. The whole will then have been applied. After this, the fitches are to remain in the brine full three weeks, being transposed every other day. To be dried without smoke.

The Yorkshire Method.—Mix and pound well together one peck of common salt, five pounds of bay salt, and two ounces each of saltpetre and sal prund. The meat having been sprinkled, drained and wiped from the blood, spread over it the whole of this mixture. Let it lie three days; then pour off all the pickle, or let it run off, if in a regular bacon trough, as described above. The pickle is then to be boiled in two gallons of water, with the addition of as much common salt as will make it bear an egg. While boiling, skim it carefully, and when quite cold, pour over the meat, and let it there remain a fortnight. Dry without smoke.

For Curing Hams.—(The following quantity is sufficient for about eighty pounds of meat):—Common

salt, bay salt, one and a-half pounds each ; coarse sugar, two pounds ; saltpetre, and black pepper, quarter of a-pound each ; juniper berries, two ounces. All these ingredients are to be bruised or ground, well mixed together, and made thoroughly hot. The hams having been previously sprinkled, drained and wiped, are to be spread over with this mixture, and then entirely covered with a coat of common salt. In two or three days, pour over a pound and a half of treacle, and baste with the pickle every day for a month, each day putting the top ham to the bottom. N.B.—A month is sufficient for hams of twenty or twenty-four pounds. If above that weight, five weeks may be allowed. When sufficiently pickled, drain dry, and smoke them. The pickle that remains will do well for tongues, chaps or chines, after they have been covered for a day or two with common salt.

Pickle for Hams.—Spring water, half a gallon ; common salt, two pounds ; bay salt, one pound ; saltpetre, quarter of a-pound ; treacle, two pounds. Boil all together, and when cold, pour over the hams. To give a smoky flavour without drying, boil two-pence-worth of tar in one pint of water, stirring it frequently. When cold, pour off the clear liquor, and stir it to the brine. The above quantity is sufficient for two hams not exceeding twenty-five pounds each. They should lie in the pickle from three to four weeks ; then drain dry ; sew in coarse hessian wrappers, and hang in a dry kitchen, or lay on a bacon rack.

Pickle for Store Meat.—The Kentish method. From pork that is to be thus preserved, nearly all the lean is removed for dressing fresh, and the fat parts cut up into pieces of a convenient size (say from two to five pounds.) The salting-tub, which is fitted with a lid, must be scoured, scalded and made perfectly dry both when it is done with for one season, and before it is taken into use for another. Slightly sprinkle the bottom of the tub with salt, and cover it with a layer of meat, which is to be packed and pressed as closely as possible ; a sprinkling of salt

being added between the layers of meat. When the tub is quite full, pour over the pickle (See page 73) and keep the lid closely shut; the meat will be fit for use in two or three weeks, but will keep uninjured for many months. If, however, the pickle should become at all slimy, it must be boiled up again with additional salt, and carefully skimmed. Meanwhile the meat should be taken out and the tub scalded and dried.

*Drying or Smoking of Bacon, Hams, &c.—*In whatever way this is to be performed, the first thing is to drain well from the pickle; this will take a day or two. It is best done in dry weather, and in a room through which there is a strong current of air. Bacon is often strewed over with bran, but this is objectionable, as it fosters the weevil or hopper, an insect most injurious and destructive to salted meats. For the same reason, drying meat in a bakehouse is not recommended. It is sure to be infested with hoppers. Drying in the influence of a malt-house, kiln, or hop-haust, generally occasions rust. Persons who have a large kitchen, which is both dry and airy, and in which a good fire is constantly kept, may dry their bacon and hams, hanging from the ceiling or lying on a rack. After draining, they should be sewed in hessian wrappers, or packed in coarse brown paper previously dried; or they may be whitewashed three times, a day or two apart. But by far the best plan, especially for long keeping, is to dry slowly over the smoke of wood. The large old fashioned chimnies in farm-houses are generally fitted up with hooks and bars for the purpose—but wood fires are much less common than formerly. It is not uncommon in the country for coopers, who have plenty of chips and saw-dust of the best kind, to take in hams and bacon to dry. The charge is trifling and the advantage great; as meat when properly smoke-dried, is almost sure to keep well, and neither takes rust nor hoppers. The meat must be hung high enough in the chimney to secure it from being melted or scorched, and so

placed as that rain cannot reach it. When a wood fire has been thoroughly lit, it may be kept burning a long time with nothing but saw-dust, which burns slowly and makes a great smoke ; the fire should be kept burning night and day. The saw-dust of oak, beech, or mahogany, is better than that of deal. The time required for drying varies with circumstances. It should be long enough thoroughly and slowly to dry the meat, but not long enough for the rind to harden and separate.

The flavour of wood smoke may be given when other modes of drying are employed, by mingling in the pickle a few drops of oil of tar or a little tar water as in the pickle for hams, page 75.

Hung Beef for Dutch Beef.—The meat for this purpose should be prime and juicy but lean ; the round, or thick flank of beef. In cold weather, it may hang three or four days before curing. Then rub it well in every part with one pound of coarse moist sugar. Repeat this three or four times a-day for several days. When the sugar has thoroughly penetrated the meat, take out the meat and wipe it dry ; pour off the pickle steadily, leaving behind any sediment ; well seal and dry the salting vessel. Return the meat, and cover it over with the following mixture, all the ingredients being finely pounded, dried, and made hot :—Common salt and bay salt, of each a quarter of a-pound ; sal prunel and saltpetre, of each two ounces ; black pepper and allspice of each one ounce. Next day, turn the meat, gather up the remaining salt, cover with it the part now uppermost, and gently pour in (not over the meat) the remains of the sugar pickle. Turn at least every day for a fortnight. Then take out the meat, roll and bind it tight with tape, or sew it tight in a wrapper, and smoke it as above. When a piece is required for use, boil it gently from an hour to two hours according to the size. Press it with a weight till quite cold, when it is to be shaved, grated, or pulled in strings for sandwiches.

Savoury Sausages for Eating Cold.—For this purpose the same ingredients are proper as in the last article. The meat may be prepared in the pickle after they are taken out; or, if sausages only be required, mix a sufficient quantity for the purpose in the same proportions of sugar, salt and spice; with this mixture, salt a piece of lean beef and a piece of streaky pork for five or six days. Then remove it from the pickle and chop it fine, carefully removing all skin and gristle. If the pork fat is less than one-third of the whole, add as much beef suet as will make it up, season with cayenne pepper and shallot or garlic. Have ready the skin of an ox gut nicely cleaned, into which put the meat, tying it in lengths of nine or ten inches, dry in wood-smoke. Then the sausages may be either baked or boiled; and when cold, cut in slices for sandwiches.

CHAPTER XI.

FRUGALITY AND CHEAP COOKERY.

THIS chapter will be principally devoted to the interests of those whose income is so limited that they cannot, to any great extent, avail themselves of directions which proceed on the supposition of their being able to lay out some shillings weekly in the purchase of meat. "Families," says an esteemed correspondent, who asks for hints adapted to their circumstances,—"families of four or five, or even more, to be maintained on wages varying from 9s. to 13s. a-week, with rent 1s. or 1s. 6d. a-week, and fuel dear." There are many families in circumstances even yet more straitened than our correspondent supposes. Most gladly would we devise means, and offer suggestions which might tend, in any degree, to mitigate their privations and increase their comforts. In order to meet the end expressly proposed, some hints on general management will be given before the particular directions about cookery. Bad management often deprives poor people of any thing to cook. Good management provides many a comfortable meal from scanty resources.

There are three questions well worth the serious and practical consideration of all persons who complain of scanty or insufficient income. 1. Is there no superfluous expenditure that may be spared,—that is, is nothing bought that can be done without. 2. Is there no means of increasing resources, hitherto untried! 3. Is what we have to spend, and what we do spend, laid out to the best possible advantage? A moment's consideration will lead any reasonable

person to admit, that it is better to do without superfluities than to be deprived of necessaries ; and yet it is no uncommon thing in families insufficiently supplied with needful food for money to be spent on useless luxuries. In a poorly-furnished cottage, not a hundred miles from where I write, little John and Sally, when they ask for more bread or porridge, often get the answer, "There's no more to give you ;" and the poor mother looks as thin as a herring. No wonder ; for she has a strong child, more than a year old, dragging at her bosom, and, at the same time, getting from her at least half the contents of her basin or her plate. And yet the husband of this woman—the father of these children, may be seen, at least every evening, with a pipe in his mouth, and fetching, or sending one of the children to fetch, a mug of beer from the public house. Now this man is not reckoned a bad husband and father : he really loves his wife and children, and is grieved to see them want : neither is he a man given to drink for the sake of drinking, or to frequenting a public-house for the pleasure of doing so. No : he fetches his "sober pint," and drinks it at home ; and seldom or never exceeds his regular allowance. But if, in these indulgencies, there be not a degree of unkind thoughtlessness, there is, at least, a very great mistake in supposing either that he can afford them, or that they are necessary and proper for him. Tobacco, in any form, is not necessary, nutritious, or beneficial : yet it is *expensive*. Sixpence a-week is not considered a great deal to spend upon it : many men spend a shilling or eighteenpence. To say the least, the man just referred to lays out from 3*d.* to 4*d.* : and where the resources of a family are scanty, even a halfpenny a-day is too much to bestow, not upon satisfying a real want, but a sensual and unnatural craving. Then the beer—2*d.* a-day—1*s.* 2*d.* a-week—added to the tobacco, making eighteenpence. Now some people have a notion that beer is necessary for a hard-working man, to strengthen

him and enable him to get through his labour. But, on the other hand, there are many men—hard-working men, in every variety of employment, who, having tried both ways, find themselves better able to labour since they left off beer, than when they used to drink it. Not a few, by laying aside these superfluities—by using for their drink pure water, instead of drugged beer and by leaving off making their throat a smoky chimney and their nose a dust-bin, have in every respect improved their own health, cheerfulness, and enjoyment, and also relieved themselves of having to say to a hungry child, “There is no food for you.” Eighteenpence a-week spent upon bread, meal, or meat, would be an important addition to the supplies of a poor family. Perhaps this may not have been duly thought of by the head of the family here spoken of, or by others in similar circumstances.

There is another matter worth consideration. Without wishing to cry out against a cup of tea for those who can afford it, *can* it properly be afforded where people run short of nourishing food? The ill-fed mother may be seen, every afternoon, with her tea-pot and sugar-basin before her, sometimes with, sometimes without the accompaniment of bread and butter. And one thing more. The Sunday-school teachers cannot help observing, that the children’s breath smells of peppermints, or their fingers are sticky with lollipops. Perhaps from 1*d.* to 2*d.* a-day—say 1*s.* a-week—goes for all these luxuries: they cannot be called anything better;—tea, sugar, and sweet-meats. What a difference in the family living would even one quart of milk a-day make! Thickened with oatmeal or rice, (which the luxury-pencee would supply,) a really good meal might be enjoyed by the family, instead of the tea, which affords no nourishment. Even milk taken with bread alone would do more good than tea, and cost less. Tea is said to be refreshing: so are many other warm infusions. Some of the good resulting from foreign tea might

be obtained from herbs of our own growing, such as mint, sage, balm, blackcurrant leaves, &c., which, in the country at least, might be had for nothing.

Then if the regular income runs short, is it not possible that some method may be devised for increasing it which has hitherto been overlooked? When the income of a family is meagre, it is generally confined to the wages of the father, and the number of children spoken of in the light of an expensive burden, thus—"He only receives — shillings a-week, and has to maintain a wife and — children." This is hardly a fair reckoning. A wife, who is good for anything, is surely worth her keep. When it is taken into account that she cooks the food, cleans the house, mends, and washes the clothes, it may be questioned whether the man alone would not have spent as many of his weekly shillings as are spent on himself and a well managing wife. Besides, if he be really an industrious, thrifty woman, and has not so numerous and young a family as to engross her whole time and attention, she will be sure to find out some way of turning her hand to the means of adding to the income. The most struggling time for a working family is, when there are two or three little children that require constant attention: when the number of children is higher, the elder ones ought to be able to do something towards the support of the family: at least, they can mind the younger children while the mother is at work. In the country, they can collect fuel for the house, and manure for the garden. Something may be gained by collecting wild produce, either for use or sale;—cowslips, hop-tops, elder-flowers, and berries; black berries, sloes, whortleberries, nuts, mushrooms, &c. &c., beside gleaning in the corn-fields. In all these things children may be employed. Their natural activity, unless directed to good account, is called mischief,—often costly, destructive, and dangerous mischief. The same activity, applied to useful pur-

suits, is a present source of pleasure and profit, and a valuable training for future life. Some parents do not think of the possibility of making little children useful, by which both parents and children are losers. Other parents have a clever knack of interesting their children in helping to do what is to be done ; in letting them understand that industry is the source of profit, and encouraging them to try their little skill and strength, by giving them a share in the produce. Children who are trained to amuse themselves by weeding in the garden, or by collecting from the fields and hedges what would otherwise be left unappropriated by the human race, and who are indulged with a pie or pudding made with their own fruit ; or, if it be sold, are furnished with a pinafore or a pair of shoes, bought with the money it has produced, are really adding to the present income of the family, as well as acquiring permanent habits of industry and thrift. Children well understand the spirit of the saying—that change of work is as good as play ; and they may be kindly won to make themselves useful to a much greater degree than many people are aware of. As a single example, which might easily be multiplied, a numerous family, well known to the writer, were constantly supplied with shoes and socks by their own industry. At a very early age their mother taught them to knit. Knitting is an employment in which children may easily be interested. The art is simple : the motion of the fingers lively ; and the rapid progress of the work encouraging. It was made a point of emulation and honour to be able to knit themselves a pair of socks. A ball of worsted was sometimes given by the parents as a reward, sometimes gained by going an errand, or rendering some little service in which children are often employed, and oftener still enquired for, when no one can be found willing to earn a penny, or worthy to be trusted. These children were well known in the neighbourhood where they lived as civil, cleanly, honest, and attentive—qualities

which every mother may, and ought to cultivate in her children, and which will find their value any day. Often, when they came in from school, a message awaited them : Billy was wanted to carry out some parcels for the shopkeeper opposite, or Betty had been sent for, to nurse the child of the laundress while she went to fetch her linen. Pleasure were they to attend to these requirements, which they knew involved the gain of a penny, or more, and perhaps a good dinner besides. Thus at an age when many children are regarded by their parents as a helpless burden, and are roaming about the streets in idleness and mischief, dirt and rags, and picking up all sorts of bad words and bad ways, these children were beginning to taste the sweets of honest independence—of respect for themselves, and reverence for their parents, and laying the foundation of their well-doing as they grew up in life. These facts are mentioned, as an instance of present income being improved in a way often overlooked by those who complain that their wages are insufficient to meet the wants of their family.

When the cottage manager has satisfied herself that every needless expense has been avoided or broken off, and that no means is left untried that might add a shilling, or even a penny, to the weekly resources of her family, it may be worth while to ascertain, whether what she has to spend on food is laid out to the best advantage, or whether, by any change in her plans of purchasing or cooking, she might get as much nourishing food for elevenpence or tenpence, as she has been used to get for a shilling. This, if it can be managed, would be just as good as adding sixpence or a shilling to her weekly income.

The first thing a good manager has to do, is to ascertain what she really has got, and what she can properly expend on food. She avoids the miserable system on which some families proceed ;—"one day stuffing, and another day starving." She wishes to

have no excess on any day, and something comfortable every day. So, on receiving her weekly allowance, she begins by laying sacredly aside, or immediately paying, the rent, and any other regular and unavoidable expense. If a week's portion of those expenses is not spared every week, when rent-day comes round, how can one week be expected to pay the rent of a month or a quarter? There will be no resource from absolute want, but either begging, borrowing, or running in debt, both of which it is her interest, and ought to be her principle, to avoid. Whatever be the weekly allowance for food, its value will be greatly enhanced by laying it out for the supplies of the week forward, instead of paying it for what has been consumed the week back. Those who have never tried, would scarcely credit the difference. But those who have tried say, that they would work day and night for a fortnight, and live upon bread and water, rather than give up the advantage. They say it makes more difference than the keep of one child. Surely it is worth a strenuous effort on the part of those who know the misery of being always behind-hand.

Then, when it is settled how much may be spent on food, it will be found a saving, both of time and money, to purchase the weekly supplies at once, that is, such as will keep, rather than have to run to shop or market every day. But the supplies thus obtained must be dealt out according to the number of days they have to serve. A good knack at this sort of calculation is a valuable quality in a family manager, and tends to make her husband and children both comfortable and contented.

A few remarks will now be made on the several articles which form the main supplies of a working family, and on the most economical methods of preparing them.

Bread comes first. We do not here enter into the details of making bread, which are fully given in the ninth chapter, but merely mention some experi-

ments that have been satisfactorily tried, when wheat was at a high price, for producing good, wholesome, and nourishing bread from a mixture of less expensive articles.

1. Maize, one gallon ; barley, one gallon ; wheat flour, half-a-gallon.
2. Maize, one gallon ; wheat, one gallon. (This is an excellent bread.)
3. One gallon each of oatmeal, barley, and wheat ; or oatmeal and wheat, without barley.
4. Barley-flour, one peck ; wheat-flour, half-a-gallon.
5. One gallon each of barley, rye, and wheat.
6. One gallon each of barley and rye ; two gallons of wheat.
7. Buck-wheat, one gallon ; barley or rye, one gallon ; wheat, two gallons.
8. Potatoes, when good and cheap, if wheat is dear, may, with advantage, be used in larger proportions than common : if dry, an equal weight of potatoes and wheat ; if the potatoes are newly dug, two-thirds potatoes to one-third wheat.
9. One-third potatoes ; one-third oats, rye, maize, or barley ; and one-third wheat.

In adopting any of these mixtures, it is found best to ferment the wheat-flour by itself, and then add it to the other materials, to make up and rise in the usual way. This goes upon the supposition of yeast being employed : whether the bread powder might be suitable, has scarcely been tried.

The relative prices of grain must determine how far these mixtures may be profitable. One remark is applicable to bread generally, whether bought or home-made, and is of no small importance to the family manager of straitened resources. New bread is as extravagant as it is unwholesome. Just the difference of one loaf in five is made by cutting bread the day it is baked, or cutting it when two days old.

Milk and Porridge.—Milk, when it can be obtained is a most valuable article of family consumption,

cheap, wholesome, nourishing, useful as food or drink, suitable for young and old, a meal of itself, and a pleasant accompaniment to other kinds of food.

Food skim milk, that is, good enough to boil with rice and not curdle, is usually sold at a penny a quart, and with the single exception of bread, yields more nourishment than can be obtained at the same price from any other article. Even with bread there is an advantage in combining milk; a better meal will be obtained from one-pennyworth of milk and three-pennyworth of bread, than from four-penny-worth of bread without milk. Milk is better not boiled; or rather, the less it is boiled the better. If, therefore, it is to be used with flour, oatmeal, or any thickening that requires long boiling, it is better to boil the grain or meal in a little water, and then stir the milk to it. Grain and meal in general mix more smoothly and boil more quickly by being soaked some hours, a whole night if it suits, in cold water; no more water should be used than the grain will absorb (or suck up,) but if any should remain liquid, it is to be used in the boiling. The addition of milk improves every kind of porridge. Old peas, whether whole or split, are often boiled with salt pork or bacon; the liquor would be too salt to eat alone, but an equal quantity of milk softens and renders it comparatively mild and palatable. The addition of onions and carrots would be a further improvement.

Milk may be preserved from turning sour by adding to it a very small quantity of carbonate of soda; a quarter of a small tea-spoonful is sufficient for a quart of milk. Fresh buttermilk, and cheese whey are both very wholesome drinks; some dairy-keepers freely give them to those who apply, others sell them at a very cheap rate.

Porridge is excellent and cheap food for children, and makes also a capital breakfast or supper for grown people, supposing them to have a more solid meal at midday. If work is so that they can take but a slight repast at noon, they will strive for a

fuller meal either night or morning. The most economical way of making porridge is to steep the oatmeal (Scotch is the best) in cold water several hours, as much as will mix it into a smooth paste, and stir it into boiling water, which should be constantly stirred till it boils fast and thickens; this will be in five or six minutes after boiling, then let it stand aside full twenty minutes, where it will just keep boiling without danger of burning. By this method, the oatmeal fully expands, and a smaller quantity serves to thicken than if it were hastily boiled without soaking. One ounce of oatmeal will make one quart of porridge.

The "Stirabout" commonly used in the northern parts, is made by very gradually shaking over and stirring into water boiling over the fire, as much oatmeal as will bring it to the thickness required. The oatmeal does not go so far on this plan, a larger quantity is required to thicken the same quantity of liquid. "Brose" a common article of diet in Scotland is not boiled at all, but is made by pouring boiling water on the oatmeal, and stirring briskly till it becomes thick and smooth. This uses still more meal, and is less digestible and nutritious than when the meal is thoroughly boiled. "Fat brose" is the same thing, only with the addition of the skim-mings of soup, or of liquor in which fat meat has been boiled. The fat is first stirred into the dry meal, then boiling liquor of some kind to bring it to a proper thickness.

Budram is another preparation of oats, much used among the labouring people in Wales and Scotland, but little known in England. It is eaten cold, and is a very pleasant summer food, and reckoned wholesome. For this purpose, the oats should be dried in a kiln, and in every respect prepared as for grinding; but the rough husk only is to be removed. The grain may be left whole, or slightly bruised. This is generally preferred as a matter of taste, but it is more economical if coarsely ground. In a stone jar

or earthen pan put two gallons of meal to four gallons of cold water, stir them well together, cover with a coarse cloth and stand in a warm place, such as a chimney corner, stirring occasionally. The mass will soon begin to ferment, and in four or five days become slightly acid. It is then fit for use. Strain off the liquor and boil it very fast, when near boiling it will run in lumps, which must be made smooth by quick stirring, when it becomes thick pour it out into basins or other vessels which have been dipped in cold water. When cold it will turn out a stiff jelly, to be eaten with cold milk, salt, sugar, or treacle. A second portion of meal may be added to the remains of the first, and will be ripe rather earlier. To persons not accustomed to it, the acid might be disagreeable, and there certainly is a waste in straining off the liquor and leaving the remains. Where it is necessary to be very frugal, the following mode of preparing the food might be found to answer better. Soak any quantity of coarsely ground oatmeal in twice the quantity of water. Let it stand about twenty-four hours, stirring it occasionally. When it is about to be boiled, put the whole into the skillet or boiler without straining; stir it as much as is necessary to keep it from burning or becoming lumpy; and let it boil half-an-hour. If the husk is removed there is no need to strain it at all.

Flavourings.—Of all flavourings salt is the cheapest and the most wholesome. Children may be used to like their food flavoured with it just as well as with sugar. Fresh salt added to give a relish to food at the moment of eating, is altogether different, both in taste and wholesomeness, from salted provisions, or salt added in the process of cooking. Salt is suitable to all kinds of porridge, whether with milk or otherwise. Some persons who wished to adopt the use of milk, but found it disagree with them, have conquered the difficulty by adding a very little salt.

Sugar is an expensive article in a family; but used

in moderation by those who can afford it, it is not at all objectionable; though where it is found hard to obtain a sufficiency of solid food, sugar must be looked upon as something to be used with the greatest care. Sugared sop is a food often given to infants, and is unwholesome, as well as the most extravagant that could be devised. Milk would afford more nourishment, and of a more suitable kind, at half the cost. There are some families who never purchase a pound of fresh meat, because *they cannot afford it*; yet who hardly limit their consumption of sugar to a pound a week. This must be looked upon as bad management.

Treacle costs less than sugar, and if managed with care, it may answer very well, either for spreading on bread or eating with porridge or plain puddings, but a very little ought to serve, as it weighs heavy, and if used freely soon mounts up to an expensive article. Spice must be reckoned a mere luxury, however, as a very little is required, an ounce of ginger for grating, or pepper, or all-spice ready ground, will serve a long time. Those who like the taste of caraway seeds, if living in the country, should grow a few plants in their gardens. They are easily raised, and when once settled will take care of themselves, and propagate for succeeding years without further trouble, as well as supply plenty of seeds for use. It is hardly necessary to mention garden herbs, parsley, thyme, mint, &c.; those who grow them may find it a pleasant change sometimes to chop up a little with their porridge or potatos.

Tea, Coffee, Cocoa.—Tea has already been alluded to, and the use of British herbs suggested as a substitute. Strawberry leaves are sometimes used for this purpose, and really answer very well. Those who can ill afford to buy foreign tea, may easily stock themselves from their own gardens thus—Gather strawberry leaves while young and tender, pick off the stalks, and dry them in an airy but shady place; when a sufficient quantity is collected,

and the whole is perfectly dry, it may be kept in canister or bottle, as other tea, and used in the same manner. The addition of young rue leaves, dried in the same way, not more than a twelfth part of the strawberry leaves, will give the flavour of green tea. Another substitute is hawthorn leaves, picked and dried, and mixed with one-tenth part each of balm and green sage. The following also is much recommended—Equal parts of agrimony, balm, tormentilla (or septfoil) and wild marjoram; one-quarter the quantity of each of these, of red roses, cowslip flowers, and black currant leaves; all to be cut small and mixed as they are gathered. When all are dried, store and use as above. These substitutes are at least worth a trial, where economy is an object.

Cocoa is cheaper than either coffee or tea, can be prepared with as little trouble, and is much more nourishing. The best method of preparing it, is to set it over the fire with cold water, stir it now and then, let it boil from five to ten minutes, when all the cocoa will be dissolved, and the liquor be smooth and rich. A table-spoonful will make a pint and a-half very good. One-third or half of this quantity should be milk, stirred in when the cocoa is done enough.

Meat.—Not to repeat what has been said in former articles, about the most profitable parts of meat, and the most economical methods of cooking them, only two remarks will be offered here with especial reference to those families who have but very little money to spend on meat. First—The internal parts of animals, some of which are thought little of, and sold at a very low rate for the food of dogs and cats, if properly cooked will make relishing and nourishing food for human beings. No person need be afraid to try this, or think it any degradation to eat that which has hitherto been put to an inferior purpose. Ox-cheek and ox-tail soup, and ragouts, are now reckoned dainty dishes at the tables of the wealthy, the preparation of which is of itself a profitable trade

in London and other large places. But time was when the ox-cheeks and ox-tails were reckoned mere offal, they were sent with the skin of the animal to the tanners, and left to perish. What brought them into vogue ! People who had very little money to spend on meat bought them, and showed what might be done by good cookery. They did it to get a little good soup, which they must otherwise have done without ; others saw and tasted, and learned wisdom. So true it is, that "Necessity is the mother of Invention." The tripe of beef and the chitterlings of pork are much used ; but those of other animals are scarcely noticed. The calf's chitterlings are sometimes cleaned as skins for large curages, but with this exception, the tripe and chitterlings of veal, mutton, and lamb, are made no use of for human food. They should be obtained immediately the animal is killed, scoured many times in salt and water, and put in soak, the water being frequently changed for twenty-four hours. If a brook or running stream is near, the business is best managed by having a tub or pan close by it, in which to salt, scrub, and scrape the tripe or chitterlings ; then rinse in the stream. This must be repeated till they are quite white and free from smell, after which boil gently till quite tender ; the length of time required depends on the size of the animal. The chitterlings are generally plaited by drawing one loop through another. A large quantity of water should be allowed for boiling ; a cake of fat, good and useful for many purposes in cookery, will rise to the top. Even the liquor is much better than water for peas-soup. Some people boil in it parsley, onions, turnips, carrots, or parsnips with rice or peas, and so make soup of it at once. If plain boiled, a little vinegar is a good sauce for tripe or chitterlings, either of which if left cold will keep a day or two, and may be re-warmed, either by broiling, or in a little of the liquor, or with part milk, and a few onions. The trouble of these preparations is not great, and sixpence or less

would purchase enough for two savoury dinners for six or seven people : surely worth the notice of those who say they scarcely know the taste of fresh meat. Ox-palates are cleaned by rubbing them over with salt, which, after about half-an-hour, is to be washed off : boil gently till the skin will come off easily. Cow-heels and sheep's trotters are cleaned in the same way as calf's feet. All of these are sold cheap, and are very nourishing ; the liquor in which they are boiled is serviceable, and the fat which forms at top, excellent in making pies or dumplings. A little vinegar is sometimes put into the boil ; or any kind of vegetables, or thickening, as mentioned above. The money that would buy two pounds of chops, a meal for three or four persons, if laid out on the articles here spoken of, would produce an ample meal for twelve or more.

Sheep's head has been recommended in chapter iv. p. 21.

Liver.—A bullock's liver in particular is generally despised, as coarse, hard, and dry ; but to preserve it from becoming hard, it must be done through without being suffered to boil. Take a piece of liver of any size, say two or three pounds, it should be in one lump, either put it in the side oven of a Yorkshire grate, or in a frying-pan over the fire with a thin rasher or two of bacon, or salt pork, or not having either, a little dripping or lard : let it brown all round. Then set aside the liver and bacon, and with a pint and a-half of broth or water, rinse out the frying-pan, or the dish in which the liver was browned. Set this liquor over the fire in a saucepan, with a quarter-of-a-pound of rice, a few onions, and sweet herbs, a carrot or turnip or two cut in slices, or a few slices of vegetable-marrow, or Jerusalem artichokes (several things are mentioned, not as being all necessary, but that such as are most at hand may be made use of.) Simmer the whole gently till the rice and vegetables are tender and the liquor rich, then put in the bacon or pork and

the liver, cover the saucepan and set it aside on the hob, to keep quite hot without coming to boil. In about a quarter-of-an-hour, turn the liver in the saucepan that both sides may be equally done, let it stand another quarter-of-an-hour, not longer, then take up all together, and it will be found a very savoury dish.

Bullock's liver cut in slices, with a little pickled pork, and chopped parsley, or an onion or two, make a very good pudding (see chapter v. p. 31). A little pepper should be added, but the pork will make it sufficiently salt.

Kidney, may be stewed in the same manner as liver, only instead of having it in one lump, cut it up in slices as thick as a penny piece, with a little dripping or lard ; brown them in a frying-pan, and season with pepper and salt. Take out the pieces of kidney, rinse out the frying-pan with no more water than is required to stew the vegetables, and rice if it be used ; or the thickening may be oatmeal or flour. When all is tender and the gravy thick, put in the fried kidney ; a few minutes will make it hot through, there is no need to turn it, and it should not be suffered to boil. Or kidney makes a good potato-pie, with or without the addition of a slice or two of pork or bacon (chapter v. p. 31).

Melts.—Many people use a melt for making gravy, and then throw it away, but to others it is an agreeable article of diet. A melt is prepared by soaking three or four hours in salt and water, with a little vinegar ; then wipe dry, double the melt and sew it up, or if two melts, sew them together, with a layer of oatmeal and seasoning, either sage and onions, or parsley and thyme, and pepper between them. Lay outside a thin rasher of bacon or fat pork, and bake one hour in the side oven of a Yorkshire grate, or not having that, in a baker's oven, or in front of the fire, or at top in a frying-pan ; or, they may be done in a potato-pie in the same way as kidneys. These are specimens of what may be done with what many

people lightly esteem. The cottage housewife who successfully tries these experiments, will be sure to find out others by which the living of her family may be improved. Ever so small a portion of animal food is an improvement to a vegetable dish: thus, a very capital stew may be made by baking one-pound each of veal and rice, and three or four onions in three quarts of water; but though not equally rich and delicate, the dish will not be despisable, if instead of one pound of prime veal, which would cost 7*d.* or 8*d.*, there should be half or even a quarter-of-a-pound of fat pork, which would cost 2*d.* or 1*d.* A potato-pie of six-pounds, should have one-pound or more of meat: but if no meat is to be had, a red herring or two will give a relish; or an ounce of cheese grated up among potatos, or rice, makes a pleasant change, and is better economy than making a dinner of bread and cheese. A very little meat gives a relish to stewed cabbage; thus, take a large summer cabbage, trim off the loose outside leaves, boil the cabbage a few minutes, with a little salt in the water, then drain it dry and carefully cut a hole in the middle, into which thrust a few bits of cold meat, with pepper and salt and chopped herbs, or a little bacon or pickled pork, with herbs and pepper only, press on the stem that was cut out, to make a sort of lid to the whole, tie it securely on and let it stew, covered close, for an hour and-a-half or two hours.

The common vegetable-stew, called a Devonshire-stew, is greatly improved by the addition of ever so small a portion of meat, bacon, or herring. It would be excellent with bullock's kidney, mentioned above. It is made with vegetables left cold, or partly boiled on purpose, the quantity of potato, parsnip, or beet-root, should be double that of either of the other vegetables, viz.:—Onions, cabbage, or greens of any sort, carrot, or any other that can be had. Mix them together, season with pepper and salt, set over the fire with two ounces of dripping and a teacupful of water or broth; when the dripping is all melted,

the liquor absorbed, and the vegetables hot through, they are done. If prepared in the manner suggested for kidney and liver, no other dripping will be required than that in which the meat was browned.

People in towns, and sometimes people in the country too, say they never have any vegetable, except potatos ; some cannot afford to buy them, others think it too much trouble to cook them. It is a pity it should be so. People may easily get the knack of doing things, and then it is no trouble, or at least not worth thinking a trouble, if it makes the more expensive articles of food go farther and helps the family to live better than they otherwise would do. Those who have no garden should not forget at the proper seasons certain things that may be had for the gathering. Young nettle-tops in spring are delicious boiled as greens : hop-tops gathered young are as good as asparagus : turnip-tops, any decent person who asks civilly and engages to gather them without injuring the roots may generally have leave to do so ; they are among the most delicious and wholesome of vegetables. The cardoon or thistle head is as good as an artichoke. When people take a walk they might as well think of such things.

Blaekberries have been mentioned as an article for sale, or for present use in the working-man's family, they also make a cheap and useful preserve ; which, when good management is practised, may more than save its cost in cheese or butter. The easiest way of doing them, is to boil or bake the fruit, (which must be gathered in dry weather and should be used fresh) with half its weight of coarse sugar. The jam should be kept boiling three-quarters of an hour.

One thing more : a little vinegar gives a relish to meat that would otherwise be insipid, and corrects the grossness of such as is too fat. A few young nasturtium seeds being steeped in cold vinegar, is the cheapest and simplest of all pickles, one that keeps as long as any, and is certainly as wholesome as any, a cheap and harmless luxury on a poor man's table ;

but the cost of the vinegar often checks even those who have a garden and plenty of nasturtiums growing in it. Well, it is easy to make a little good vinegar at home, it may be done in a common black glass bottle or two. The best time is in spring, as the heat of summer is wanted to ripen it. For as many black bottles (the bottles used for wine,) as are required to be filled, allow half-a-pound of coarse brown sugar and a pint and-a-half of boiling water each, and a tea-spoonful of solid yeast. Pour the boiling water over the sugar, stir it well, and when all but cold stir the yeast to it, dipping up a little and pouring it back to make it well mix ; cover it up and set it in a warm place to work ; a chimney corner is the best, but not too near a fierce fire. Let it work two or three days, then strain for bottling. The bottles must be perfectly clean and dry, and in each should be put a wine-glassful of good vinegar. Tie over the tops with a bit of thin muslin or gauze, or paper with holes pricked in it, so as to admit air, and yet keep out flies, &c. The bottles must stand in a very warm place, either near a fire, or in the heat of the sun, but sheltered from rain by a south window, or a skylight, or under slates in a sunny aspect. In a few weeks this will be capital vinegar. When the bottles are emptied, they may be filled again without washing, and it will not be necessary to put bought vinegar in them, what hangs about will be sufficient to forward the new. The cost will be 2½d. or 3d. a bottle ; that of good bought vinegar would be from 7½d. to 10d.

CHAPTER XII.

CHARITABLE COOKERY.

THIS chapter will consist of hints to persons in comfortable circumstances—especially young housekeepers, who, though they would be glad to assist their poor neighbours, want experience in the art of finding out the resources in their power, and directing them to the best advantage. It may also afford a hint to persons employed in domestic service, who often, without wilful selfishness or hardheartedness, but from mere want of thought and observation, overlook opportunities of doing good, which they might improve, without injury to their employers, and even with their full approbation. In any station of life, happy are they who possess the ability and the inclination to alleviate the distresses and promote the comforts of their fellow-creatures.

Where housekeeping is conducted on a liberal scale, and in freedom from anxious care as to the means of supply, there are two dangers to be guarded against by those who desire conscientiously to improve the means they possess of doing good to others:—One arises from the bad system of either expressly or tacitly allowing perquisites to servants—a liberty which is sure to be abused by unprincipled persons, and which puts a strong temptation in the way of such as are not ill-disposed. The “grease-pot”* and the “hog-tub” are shocking instruments of robbery upon employers, privation of relief to poor neigh-

* This has been justly and expressively called *The Horn-book of Thieving*.

hours, and positive destruction of property, which will one day have to be accounted for. Whether in this particular we have put into our hands the five talents, the two, or the one, it behoves us so to improve them, that we may sustain the character of good and faithful servants. The mistress who wishes to have honest and careful servants, and to do all the good she can, and ought to do, with the means which Providence has put in her power, must begin by paying her servants an equivalent for their labour in the direct form of wages, and steadily resisting every sort of perquisite, whether in the purchase of goods, in gratuities from visitors, or in the disposal of provisions, either in course of preparation for the family use, or remaining after the intended family purpose has been served. A pound or two additional would be thought much of in the wages of a servant, and yet be but a mere fraction compared with the consumption avoided in the form of "kitchen-stuff" and "hog-wash."

The other obstacle referred to in the way of domestic charity—as well as of proper economy—is the want of constant personal superintendence on the part of the mistress of a family, and consequent ignorance of her own available resources. No mistress need think it beneath her to look into those affairs which it is her proper province to guide—nor need any one be discouraged by want of knowledge and experience. If she will but accustom herself to look round, she will be daily becoming more prompt in perceiving what ought to be done, and more expert in adopting the best method of doing it. Two members of a committee happening to meet: one said to the other, "I find we have a committee to-morrow. I suppose there is nothing particular to be brought forward. I do not think I shall attend—shall you?" "Yes," replied the other, "while my name is on the committee, it is my duty to attend, and our meeting together may prove the very occasion of some important and useful suggestion." The same just

principle may be applied to the mistress of a family daily inspecting the contents of her larder. It is suggestive of thoughts of good management and benevolence. "*This* requires attention for home consumption—that may properly be disposed off. *These* delicate little fragments may be acceptable to the sickly palate of such a neighbour. *Those* commoner articles will form a substantial meal for a hungry family." By constant and judicious attention in little things, a large amount of good may be effected at little or no expense.

It must be constantly borne in mind that every thing is of use, and made a standing rule, that nothing is to be thrown away without consideration. The foolish excuse of many heedless girls should never be twice admitted, "Oh, I threw it away; I did not know it was good for anything. I gave it to the dog. I did not know it would be wanted."

Cleanliness and neatness should be observed in setting away what is intended to be used for the poor, as well as in what is to be again set before the family. If things of different kinds, as meat and vegetables, are set away on the same dish, they spoil one another. Even if they are intended to be made up into one stew or soup, they are better not mixed till the cooking is to be set about. The fresher all such things can be used the better. Nothing is fit to be given to the poor that is not palatable and wholesome, and such as the giver would not hesitate to partake of herself, if circumstances required. At least twice a-week, there should be a thorough clearing of the pantry; and in summer, this should not be suffered to pass the second day. Vegetables should be cleared one day under another.

Liquor in which any kind of meat has been boiled is highly valuable. If not wanted as the basis of "stock" in the family, it may easily be converted into good broth or soup for the poor. For either purpose it will be greatly enriched, if two joints be boiled in succession, which may be done without in-

jury, provided the first dressed joint be fresh meat and white. Thus, if a joint of mutton or veal, or a turkey, be boiled first, a leg of pork, or a piece of beef, may with advantage be boiled in the same liquor; but white meats would be discoloured by boiling after salt meat of any kind.

The liquor in which salt meat has been boiled, may be used by adding to it an equal quantity of fresh liquor or water, and boiling down bones in it. If liquor in which fat meat, whether salt or fresh, has been boiled, be left to become cold, a cake of fat, which will have formed at top, should be removed before setting on the liquor to make soup. If there be more of it than would be desirable in the soup, it will serve to make dumplings for the soup, or common paste, as mentioned below. The liquor of salt meat should be steadily poured off, and all sediment left behind, as most of the salt particles will have settled there.

All bones that come from table should be taken care of, and boiled down. It is not at all likely that they have been gnawed or handled, or are in any way soiled. Some people rinse them slightly in cold water, but it is really not necessary. Shanks of mutton, lambs' feet, and bits of bone that come off in trimming a joint for cooking, will be a valuable addition to the soup-pot. Also the heads, necks, and feet of poultry. With a little boiling water and salt, they are easily cleaned, and they add great richness to soup or stew in general; or, if wanted for the use of a sick person, excellent chicken-broth may be made with them, and the bones that come from table, using the liquor in which the fowls were boiled, (if boiled) or the liquor of any white fresh meat, but avoiding the liquor of salt meat, and rather using water, and making a smaller quantity of broth. The heads, feet, and bones of two fowls, will make a full pint of rich broth.

A digester is the most complete contrivance for extracting the goodness from bones. But any suit-

able saucepan answers very well. It should be kept close shut, and boil fast. Bones that have already been cleared of meat, should be boiled till they become quite white and dry, and will yield no more goodness; then strain off the liquor. Those that will afford another picking, such as feet, shanks, or poultry trimmings, should be boiled till tender, then separated from such as are done with, and restored to the soup or broth from which they were taken.

There is a great deal of nourishment in fish, especially those of a glutinous kind. In fact, they yield the very same jelly as isinglass, which is an expensive article, and much esteemed for its strengthening properties. The liquor in which fish has been boiled should be stewed with the heads, bones, and fins, as they come from table. It makes a delicate broth of itself, with the addition of an onion and a little parsley; or it is a great improvement if added to any other soup that may be in hand.

Peas, groats, or barley from which soup or gruel has been made and strained, are often thrown away. This should not be done: if added to the soup in question, they will thicken and improve it. If further thickening is intended, remarks on the several articles suited for that purpose may be found in chapter iv.

In refined cookery only just the hearts or other prime parts of vegetables are used, such as celery, onions, &c. Much that is cut away would do equally well for flavouring, and if allowed time enough, would boil tender. They may be added to the soup without any additional expense or trouble. Almost any kind of vegetable may be added as they come from the table. Where there is a garden and plenty of vegetables at command, two or three gourds, beet-roots, carrots, onions, turnips, or Jerusalem artichokes, any or all will be an improvement. Let it not be imagined that the writer would insinuate that everything may be messed together, and would be good enough for poor people. Far from it. She would not for a moment encourage the use of anything that

is not in itself wholesome and good. But she well knows, that by proper cooking, an art in which the poor are too often deficient, and of the conveniences, for which they are often destitute, it is easy to produce from articles often wasted, a considerable quantity of palatable, wholesome, and nourishing food, which, in a poor struggling family, is highly acceptable,—especially in times of sickness, lying-in, or want of regular employment. The kind-hearted housekeeper, who has been induced fairly to try the experiment of thus doing good in a cheap way, is not likely to forget the sacred injunction, to "gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost."

Before taking leave of this business of soup making, it may be well to offer two remarks to the inexperienced housekeeper. First, It will be very desirable if she can induce her cook to become the willing helper and sharer in her schemes of benevolence. She must be a very ill disposed person who would grumble at a little additional work, for the comfort and relief of others, and one who could be little trusted for acting uprightly by her employers. If, on the contrary, a servant should discover thoughtfulness, aptitude, and good will, in carrying out the kind designs of her mistress, she ought to be encouraged by evident approbation and satisfaction. Perhaps a small present by way of acknowledgment of her kind services, would not be misapplied. At any rate she should be regarded as taking an actual share in the work of benevolence. Her care and fidelity, though in themselves, no more than duties, are benevolently employed in extending for those she serves, the means of doing good, and since the cheerful givers, in every rank of society are accepted according to what is in their power—not according to what is beyond it, we may be sure that silver and gold are not essential to true charity, but that those are truly benefactors, who, not having wealth at command, cheerfully and nobly exert themselves in preparing and administering what others provide. Such a servant is not likely to

encourage worthless persons to sponge on the liberality of her employers, nor ought a system of favouritism to be upheld, even at her suggestion ; but she might with propriety be listened to, when, as occasions arise, she respectfully proposes some unexpensive modes of doing good hitherto overlooked, or points out objects of compassion and cases of distress. Second, There is a great advantage in well timing this sort of business so as to prevent its needlessly interfering with the regular family cooking, or with the evening's decent leisure of the kitchen. For want of attention in this particular, the arrangements of the family have been thrown into confusion, or the servant has been bustling about at an inconveniently late hour ; both mistress and servant have been irritated and discouraged, and the benevolent experiment has been given up in disgust. When a boiler-furnace is alight, or a pot over the fire and a piece of meat boiling, the liquor of which is intended to be made into soup, it saves trouble to collect together the thickening, vegetables and other additions and put them in as soon as the meat is taken out. Bones, unless very salt, may be put in the boiler with the meat and boil all the time. Or if this should not suit, all may be got ready and the saucepan set over the fire the last thing before the servant cleans herself for the afternoon, and boil without further trouble all the evening ; or again, unless the family dinner hour be very early, the soup-pot might be set on at breakfast time, as soon as the tea-kettle is removed, and the operation would be completed before the fire was wanted for dinner cooking. It should be contrived not to begin such an affair when it would not be convenient to finish it : but a little good management on the part, both of the mistress and servant, will accomplish all without any clashing.

BREWS.—A very relishing meal may be bestowed on a hungry family at no great expense, when a piece of beef or a leg of pork is boiling—thus : Cut a very thick upper crust of bread, the staler the better.

Put it in the boiling pot full half-an-hour before the meat is done. It will then be ready to take up just before the meat. It will have swollen and become quite tender, and enriched with the fat and liquor. Take it up with a large slice or wire ladle, and shake on a little pepper. This is a very comfortable meal for aged persons.

Persons who have a side-oven in their kitchen-range, or a brick oven occasionally heated, may bake a cheap and substantial pudding, especially if they have milk at command—thus: Rice or sago, half-a-pound; skim milk, two quarts; dripping, from two ounces to four ounces; all-spice, a tea-spoonful; coarse sugar or treacle, from two ounces to four ounces may be added or omitted at pleasure. It improves the pudding provided it do not curdle the milk. If milk is scarce, one quart will suffice if the grain be previously soaked some hours in one quart of water; or water may be used without any milk. To be put in the oven cold; about two hours will bake it.

A CHEAP BREAD-PUDDING.—Collect together any quantity of bits of bread, both crust and crumb. Pour over them cold water, just enough to cover them, and let them remain all night, or several hours. When ready to bake the pudding, grease a dish with dripping. Put the soaked bread through a colander, which will be barely the work of a minute, and add, according to the quantity of bread, a pint or a quart of skim milk, and one, two, or three eggs, one or two ounces of moist sugar, the same of dripping, and a little all-spice. Less than an hour will bake it. N.B. In making rich puddings, cakes, &c., cooks often use more yolks of eggs than whites. Any superfluous whites of eggs well beaten, may be turned to account in a common pudding.

A SCRAP PIE.—Grease a flat dish, and make a common paste with dripping or the fat that has settled on the liquor of boiled meat; two pounds of flour and three-quarters of a pound of fat will make a large pie. The crust will be greatly improved by

the addition of a tea-spoonful of bread powder, or a little carbonate of ammonia. Having rolled out the crust, spread a thinnish layer carefully over the dish. Fill it with bits of cold meat of any kind that have been collected from the plates, (it is a bad way to leave bits on a plate, but where much company is kept some will do it, and if left, it is a pity good food should be wasted) or trimmed from a joint, or in any other way. Chop them all up together with a little parsley and thyme, and an onion, and season with pepper and salt. If there is not meat enough to fill the dish, cold potatos may be laid at bottom, either mashed or cut in thin slices, or slices of vegetable marrow. A little cold gravy will be an improvement. Moisten the edge-crust that the top when laid on may adhere firmly. Cover and bake. When the top crust looks well done it is enough. This will turn out whole, and is excellent eating, either hot or cold.

Or the same thing may be baked in a deep pie-dish, only lining the sides of the dish with crust, not the bottom. A larger proportion of vegetables may be given—potatos, carrots, and beet, or vegetable marrow, seasoning the same, and more broth or other liquor for gravy.

A SCRAP PUDDING.—Make a stiff batter with flour, water and dripping. It would be enriched by using part or all milk instead of water, and by the addition of an egg or a little bread-powder, but will be good with only the first-mentioned ingredients. Grease a deep dish, strew in any bits of meat and cold vegetables; season with pepper and salt, and a little chopped parsley, thyme, and onions. Pour over the batter, and bake one hour.

DUMPLINGS TO BOIL IN SOUP.—To any weight of flour, rub in from one-quarter to one-third the weight of fat. Moisten with cold water, or liquor in which meat or rice has been boiled. Dumplings, the size of a small orange, may boil half an hour, and will help to enrich the soup.

CHEAP BARLEY BROTH.—If no other liquor can be had to begin with, set on water, allowing for boiling away, one-third part more than the quantity required. Suppose the quantity set on to be six quarts, when it boils, put in six ounces Scotch barley and six or eight large onions, peeled but not sliced, two or three turnips and carrots cut up, may be added or omitted; let them boil an hour and-a-half, then pour out the whole. While the saucepan is hot, put in two or three ounces of good dripping or pot-top (the fat removed from the top of liquor in which meat has been boiled.) When it is melted, stir in a quarter-of-a-pound of oatmeal, which keep rubbing till the whole is mixed with the fat, and has become a smooth paste. Then by little and little return the barley, water and onions, stirring well till the whole boils. Add a small handful of parsley, picked but not chopped; a few marigold blossoms, and a tea-spoonful, or rather more, of ground pepper. Let it boil fifteen or twenty minutes longer, then stir in three tea-spoonful of salt and pour out. If too thick, a little cold milk stirred in, is a great improvement; and if this addition be intended, a proportion of the water may be left out at first.

It should be observed, that pot-top, though excellent for present use either in paste or for enriching soup, soon turns sour. If required to keep, it should be set before the fire or in an oven to melt, and may then be kept several days, but not so long as the dripping of roast meat.

When calf's feet have been boiled down for jelly, they will still yield a nice picking which may be very acceptable to a sick person, or a family of children. If possible they should be given to them while hot, as it would be impoverished by rewarming.

When rich beef-tea or mutton-tea has been made by chopping the meat fine and boiling it fast for twenty minutes,—which, for an invalid, is the best way of making it, though not the most economical,—the chopped meat may be seasoned and baked in a

crust, or used as a mince thus:—For gravy, take a little liquor in which meat or bones have been boiled down; an onion or two may be boiled whole in it, if time allows. If wanted in haste, chop them small, and put to the liquor fast boiling; in this way they may be done more quickly. Rub up the chopped meat with as much flour or oatmeal as it will carry. Season with pepper and salt; stir to the boiling gravy, and let it simmer till the gravy thickens, but no longer. A table-spoonful of ketchup or walnut pickle will be a great improvement.

Those who kindly interest themselves in ministering to the comforts of the sick poor, will do well, while preparing for them suitable nourishment, not only steadily to refrain from yielding to the common but most erroneous desire for preparations of a stimulating kind,—such as wine, beer, spirits, or caudle into the composition of which these things enter, but also to endeavour to correct their mistakes on the subject. On some points there is a difference of opinion, but none we believe among well-informed people at the present day, as to the impropriety of giving heating food to the sick. There is no doubt that the strong caudle, formerly given to lying-in women, retarded their recovery, and caused great suffering to their infants from the thrush—an infantile disease, comparatively speaking, unknown at the present day. Not a few lives of mothers and infants have been sacrificed to heating and improper diet; and yet it only wants to be known that some kind charitable lady will give a pithier of strong caudle, and she will have almost as many applicants as there are poor women in her neighbourhood, in circumstances to put in their claim. It would be well to discourage all such applications, by substituting such articles of diet as are really suitable—simple gruel—milk—biscuits—light pudding—broth—meat, and by endeavouring to convince them that their real advantage was consulted in the exchange.

To nursing mothers, not abundantly supplied,

there cannot be a more appropriate gift than barley water and milk--nothing that would tend more to recruit their own strength, and to furnish a proper supply for their infants.

Persons who have a large kitchen-garden, often have considerably more of the commoner vegetables than they require for the use of their own family ; and such crops as come to maturity all at once, must be either used or left to perish. It is not uncommon to see heads of brocoli running up to flower — dozens of cabbage or lettuce bursting — kidney beans growing old in the pods. These remarks do not apply to articles left to ripen for seed ; but this is not generally practised in private gardens. The cause of regret is when they are left entirely to run to waste. Now in every neighbourhood, it may be presumed there is some poor family to whom these things would be acceptable ; vegetables with them are not, as with the rich, merely a sort of sauce and embellishment to the table, but are often the staple of the meal. Some of them have not gardens, or if they have, little variety is cultivated ; some grow only potatos, and look upon green vegetables as a luxurious treat. Those who have it in their power to confer a pleasure so cheaply, may be glad to be reminded of the opportunity.

In conclusion, it may be observed that the foregoing instructions are as much intended to set people thinking of new means and methods for themselves, as to point out what is easily practicable.

CHAPTER XIII.

COOKERY FOR THE SICK AND FOR YOUNG CHILDREN.

GENERAL REMARKS.—Cleanliness, a cardinal virtue in all cooking is pre-eminently essential in the department now under consideration. A slight transgression of the laws of cleanliness is sufficient to render the most suitable food not only distasteful, but pernicious to the delicate organs of a young infant, or of an invalid. This fact should never be lost sight of in any one preparation for this class of consumers—“Never mind,” says the sluttish cook; “if the saucepan is not over clean, that will not show in the dish.—What the eye does not see the heart does not rue.” But the sick person turns disgusted from the ill-prepared mess, or the poor infant is disordered; and many a falling back in sickness, and many a grievous suffering in infancy has been inflicted, simply by disregard to cleanliness in the preparation of food. Under the head of cleanliness, a remark or two will be in place, as to the vessels used for preparing food for the use of the delicate. *Of metal vessels*, black tin saucepans are generally preferred for making gruel, &c. Iron is objectionable, as it spoils the colour of delicate food, and is apt also to give an unpleasant taste. Copper unless extremely well tinned and kept scrupulously nice, is still more objectionable. The vessel in which milk or gruel is boiled, should not be used for any thing greasy or seasoned; a saucepan in which broth has been made, flavoured perhaps with onions or parsley—however nicely cleaned, will be sure to impart a disagreeable taste to milk or other delicate food. The only kind of metal that is an exception to this remark, is brass; silver we suppose to be out of the question, on the score of cost.

If always kept clean and bright, there is nothing more sweet than a brass skillet of suitable size ; it may be used for every purpose, and is preferable even to tin, as being less liable to burn, and when properly cleaned retains no flavour of past operations.

Whatever vessel is used, the food should not be suffered to remain in it, but poured out as soon as done, and the vessel put a-soak in cold water ; after standing awhile, clean it thoroughly with wood ashes, rinse well, make perfectly dry, and if turned down on a shelf, which is a good way for keeping out dust, let the edge of the skillet or saucepan project a little beyond the edge of the shelf, to admit a current of air : when taken down for use, wipe with a clean dry cloth. The modern enamelled saucepans require only washing in cold water. For stirring, use either a silver or wooden spoon ; not one of iron or other metal.

The *earthenware* dishes, basins, or whatever else may be used for keeping food already cooked, or for milk, should be scalded every time after using, made perfectly dry with a clean cloth, and left to become quite cold, before milk, broth, or whatever else it may be, is put into them. For preserving liquids (broth, gruel or milk,) a wide shallow vessel is better than a tall narrow one : milk should never be kept in a jug. Cooked food should not be shut in close with a lid ; if any covering is necessary to preserve from cats, mice, or slugs, it should be a hair sieve, or wire cover ; or not having these at hand, a common colander will answer the purpose.

The cake of fat which collects on the top of broth, while it remains unbroken tends to preserve the liquor, but if once broken, the bits of fat floating at top soon turn sour. The fresher all these things can be used the better ; but if it so happens that the quantity of broth or gruel made is sufficient to serve for two or three times using, when one meal has been taken out, and the fat or skin at top broken, the remainder should be transferred to a clean dry vessel, and all remaining fat removed.

The sucking bottle used for feeding infants—decidedly the best, and indeed only proper mode of artificial feeding—should be emptied and rinsed after every time of using ; no food being suffered to remain in it. At least once a day, the wash-leather (which is used as a teat,) should be renewed, the sponge scalded, and the bottle, if of glass, soaked in cold water, and drained dry before putting on the new leather ; if of earthenware, the bottle may be filled with boiling water, and then drained. Tin sucking bottles are often used on account of the cost of brittle ware , they are not however so pleasant or suitable, but may be kept sweet by often soaking them in cold water, and afterwards filling them with boiling water, and draining dry. The leather and sponge to be managed the same as for the other bottles. The leather referred to is just like the tip of a small glove finger, into which a morsel of sponge of a conical (or sugar-loaf) form, is put, to prevent the milk flowing too fast, and the leather securely tied on the small neck of the bottle. The length of the leather should be such, as to allow the infant to take firm hold of it without drawing the neck of the bottle into its mouth.

Food for infants or for the sick, should neither be re-warmed, nor kept warm on a hob or in an oven, either of which gives a coddled, disagreeable taste, and renders it positively unwholesome. This is especially the case if either sugar or salt have been added to the composition. It is better to prepare no more than is required for use at once. But if any should remain, let it be brought to a proper warmth by the addition of a little water, broth, or gruel (as the case may be) boiling hot.

Preparing of Food.—Milk for the food of infants should not be boiled. Boiling altogether alters its properties. Either the milk should be brought to a proper heat by the addition of boiling water ; or food, such as arrow-root, sago, or panada, should be thinned and cooled by the addition of fresh milk. It is a common and very dangerous error to suppose

that the food of infants is rendered nourishing by being thickened. They do not require thickened food; nor are they capable of digesting it. We have heard some nurses boast of a young infant taking a tea-spoonful of good thick food, that the spoon could stand on end in; and we have known infants after performing such a feat, suddenly taken off in convulsions, or pining away in bowel complaints, with all the appearance of being starved; the nurse or mother wondering what could have caused the child's illness, and least of all connecting it with its feeding. Perhaps—we can only say perhaps—for deeply-rooted prejudice is not always conquered even by ocular demonstration—perhaps if they could see the size of the vessels through which the food has to pass, some of them smaller than a hair, they might be convinced that *such* food was altogether unsuitable and dangerous—that the infant's stomach is altogether unable to digest such food and convert into nourishment, and that it cannot be eaten without causing serious pain and injury. But *all* mothers and nurses are not prejudiced. Some are sincerely inquiring after truth, and thankful for information that may assist them in the management of the important charge placed in their hands. These may be induced to give a fair trial to methods of feeding recommended by long and careful experience. Infants to whom the mother can afford a regular supply, require no other food than from the breast for at least four months, and are far better, more truly nourished, and more healthy, by never taking any other food for that period or longer. But if the supply prove insufficient, or if circumstances be such that the infant must be brought up altogether without the breast, the best substitute is fresh, pure* cow's

* Ass's milk is not mentioned, as the cost would render it not generally accessible; and by due attention to the proportion and preparing, cow's milk will almost always be found to answer just as well.

milk, and water, without any kind of thickening. On this food alone many fine healthy children have been supported eight, ten, or twelve months. No variety is required so long as the child appears plump and satisfied. It may then be brought to eat a piece of upper crust of good, pure bread, or a thin slice of bread and butter, or it may for a few weeks be fed with one, and then with two meal, a dry of arrow-root or tops and bottoms, prepared as hereafter directed; the other meals being still simply milk and water.

The milk for this purpose should be fresh at least twice a-day. Some persons who have the means at command, milk a cow for the purpose yet or more frequently; but there is little if any advantage attending this plan. Cream is sometimes used in preference to milk, it being the lightest as well as the richest part of the production. In this case it must be diluted in proportion, and must never have stood more than twelve hours.

To prepare Milk and Water for an Infant.—For a very young infant begin with two-thirds new milk, and one-third boiling water; this will bring it to the warmth of milk from the cow. In the water dissolve a very few grains each of sugar and salt; then add the milk. The quantity of sugar and salt for a meal, should not exceed what will lie on the tip of a salt-spoon. If cream be used, begin with the proportion of four-fifths water to one-fifth cream. Of course time must be allowed to bring it to a proper coolness. It should never be taken warmer than milk from the cow. As the child grows older, the proportion of milk may be increased as it is found to agree, till only new milk is taken, or only so much boiling water added as just to take off the chill. The richest proportion in which cream should be used, is one-third to two-thirds water.

Milk and water, the common drink of children, and sometimes of sick persons, is often prepared in a careless manner, and rendered disgusting and unwholesome. The milk should be fresh, the water

fast boiling ; at least as much milk as water should be allowed ; and it should be mixed the instant it is to be used. Thus made, it is a pleasant and wholesome drink. While upon the article of drinks, it may be as well to mention some others, which, however simple, are often spoiled in the preparation.

Toast-water—should be made a quarter-of-an-hour before the time of using. For a large jug of water, a piece of bread about three inches square and one inch thick will be sufficient. It may be either crumb or top-crust. Toast it very slowly, so that every part be browned and hardened, but take care that it does not catch fire. The water may be either fresh drawn from the spring, or it may have been boiled and left to become cold. The latter is sometimes prepared for invalids, but does not taste so fresh and lively. Have the water standing ready at hand, and plunge the toast in it, as it is taken hot from the fire. If the water is poured upon the toast, the bread is broken, and the water thickened.

Herb Tea. — Green, fresh gathered herbs are always to be preferred ; but they may be carefully dried for winter use, and answer the purpose. In that case every bit of stalk should be removed, and only the leaves used.

Take eight or ten tops of fresh gathered balm, sage, or mint, or a handful of cowslip pips, or marigold flowers, stripped. Pour over them a quart of boiling water, cover the jug or tea-pot, and let it stand from five to eight minutes—not longer ; then strain off. Balm is the most cooling of these drinks—mint the most comfortable to the bowels—sage and marigold the most reviving—cowslip is composing—all are very wholesome. Mint and balm together make a pleasant tea. Spearmint is the most pleasant sort for tea, but double mint and peppermint are most useful in bowel complaints.

Rue Tea.—Gather young sprigs and leaves free from stalk. About twenty or twenty-four will make

a tea-cupful, to be prepared as above. Rue tea taken in the morning fasting is a valuable remedy against worms. It is also very useful for infants when troubled with wind on the stomach, or disordered bowels, a much safer and more efficacious remedy than the stupefying and spirituous medicines often given. A tea-spoonful or two may be given at any time.

Camomile Tea—is often rendered nauseous by being allowed to stand too long on the flowers. After five or six minutes all the goodness is extracted, and nothing further is drawn except a disagreeable bitter. When camomile tea is taken either for a sick head-ache, or to work off an emetic, or to promote perspiration—for all which purposes it is very valuable—it should be made weak, and drunk warm. A table-spoonful of flowers will be sufficient for a pint of tea. If required as a tonic, allow a table-spoonful of flowers to half-a-pint of water; prepare it over-night; let it stand six minutes (at most); strain off, and drink it cold the first thing in the morning. Three or four cloves may be added if approved. A tea-cupful taken fasting, and another between breakfast and dinner, persevered in, will be found an excellent strengthener of the appetite and digestion, and tend to remove faintness, languor, and depression of spirits.

Barley Water.—Either Seotech or pearl barley may be used. The former is much less expensive, and answers equally well. Set on two ounces in a small quantity of water; let it become quite warm, but before it boils strain off the liquor, and put a quart of fresh water, boiling. (The wasting a little liquor at first is for the sake of preserving a delicate colour and flavour.) Let the second liquor boil till reduced one-half; then strain off. This will be of a moderate thickness; but if it be desired to make it thicker or thinner, it is but varying the quantity of barley. This is a cooling drink, and admits of additions either for flavour or for medicinal use. The

juice and rind of lemon, with loaf-sugar, are most agreeable. Figs, raisins, liquorice-root, honey, and gum-arabie, are often used either for coughs, cold on the chest, confined bowels, or strangury. Powdered nitre is often used in feverish complaints, and given in barley water : a drachm to a quart is a good proportion.

The method of mixing either nitre or powdered gum-arabie, is to rub the powder smooth with sugar or honey ; then mix it with a spoonful or two of the barley water, and stir it to the whole in a boiling state. As a nourishing drink, boil the barley in half the quantity of water. When reduced, and quite thick, strain, and mix with an equal quantity of new milk ; sweeten to taste. A bit of cinnamon, or two laurel leaves may be boiled in it for flavour.

Thick barley water, with milk and *a little* salt and sugar, is a suitable food for infants, when they begin to take what is at all thickened. The barley may be used in broth or stew, or to make a pudding.

Bran Tea.—A very cheap and useful drink in colds, fevers, and restlessness from pain. Put a handful of bran in a pint and a-half of cold water, let it boil half-an-hour or more, then strain, and, if desired, flavour with sugar or lemon-juice ; but it is a pleasant drink without any addition. The bran when strained will serve as food for rabbits, chickens, or pigs.

Linseed Tea.—Very useful in hoarseness and husky cough. Boil two table-spoonsful of the seeds in three pints of water till reduced to a quart, strain, and sweeten with honey. The juice of a lemon may be added, or a spoonful or two of good vinegar, or a tea-spoonful of citric acid.

Lemonade.—Very thinly shave the rind of two large lemons, not taking a morsel of the white pith, which pith should next be entirely removed, taking care not to break or cut into the fruit so as to waste the juice, cut the middle part of the lemons in thin slices (a silver knife is best for the purpose) ; from

one ounce to two ounces of loaf sugar. Put these three articles (thin rind, slices and sugar) into a jug, pour over them a quart of boiling water—let it stand a few minutes before using.

When lemons are not in season, the same flavour may be obtained by adding to the sugar a drachm of citric acid and eight drops of pure essence of lemon.

Orange drink may be prepared in the same manner as lemonade, allowing two China oranges and one Seville orange to a quart of water, or three China oranges. Half the rind will be quite sufficient.

Imperial Drink.—Cream of tartar half an ounce, loaf sugar one ounce, the outer rind of a lemon or orange, pour over a quart of boiling water, and when cold strain off.

Drink from Fresh Fruit.—One pint of currants, stripped—a few raspberries make an agreeable addition—one pint of water, boil them together ten or fifteen minutes, strain to one ounce or two ounces of loaf sugar.

When fresh fruit cannot be had, dissolve two table-spoonsful of currant jelly in from half-a-pint to a pint of boiling water.

Raspberry Vinegar—may be made by steeping fresh-gathered fruit in vinegar; three quarts of fruit to one of vinegar, after steeping three days, strain and simmer gently with one pound of loaf sugar to every pint of juice and vinegar. When cold, bottle and cork very securely. Or, to a pint of fresh raspberry juice allow one pound of loaf sugar powdered, boil together three-quarters of an hour after actual boiling. Then pour off and mix with an equal quantity of distilled vinegar, and bottle. A large table-spoonful of this in a glass of water, is a most refreshing drink in fevers, and is particularly useful in complaints of the chest,—a substitute may be made by dissolving raspberry jam, straining the juice, and mixing with it an equal quantity of best vinegar.

Soda Draught.—In a large glass dissolve a small tea-spoonsful of carbonate of soda in cold water, in

another glass dissolve rather more than a-half teaspoonful of citric or tartaric acid, and two moderate sized lumps of sugar, in boiling water. The whole quantity of water used should be about a quarter-of-a-pint. A very small portion of hot will serve to dissolve the acid, and this may be allowed to become cold before mixing, then pour all into the large glass, and drink while in a state of effervescence.

Whey—is milk deteached from the oily particles, by means of some acid, which separates them in the form of curd. It is chiefly useful as promoting perspiration. Wine, which is often used, is objectionable on account of its heating tendency ; and every good purpose may be answered by using whey in its pure state.

Good sweet skim-milk does very well for whey, or if new milk be used it will bear the addition of one-third or one-fourth part water : (this merely a matter of economy, not preference.)

The acid may be set on at first with the milk, or be thrown in the moment it boils—the latter method is preferable. It should not be at all stirred or shaken, but left to boil till the curd is entirely separated, and the whey quite clear ; then strain, and sweeten with loaf sugar. No more acid should be used than is really required to turn the milk ; but the following will give some idea of proportion :—to a pint of milk—a glass of white wine ; or an orange, or lemon ; or the juice only, and a little water in which the rind is rinsed ; or two small apples cut in slices, and boiled with the milk ; or a table-spoonful of vinegar, or of honey, or treacle ; either of these things will answer the purpose, and the product will be called accordingly, “white wine whey,” “vinegar whey,” “orange whey,” “treacle posset,” &c.

Mustard Whey.—Often used by old people afflicted with palsy, rheumatism, or dropsy. Mustard seed, bruised, one ounce and a-half ; milk, one pint ; water, one pint ; sugar, either loaf or moist, two ounces. Boil the milk, throw in the seed, let it continue to boil till the curd completely separates, strain, and add

the water, which should be in a boiling state, sweeten, and boil up the whole together. This quantity may be taken in the course of a day a tea-cupful at a time. The seeds, if washed from the curds, will serve once or twice again.

Cheese Whey--is reckoned wholesome, as also *sweet butter-milk*, especially for consumptive persons. For those who can afford it, the best way is to milk the cow into the churn, let the milk stand ten minutes, then begin churning, and as soon as the flakes of butter begin to float, and the milk looks thin and blue, strain it off. This should be repeated twice a day, and be used as the constant beverage of the sick person, indeed almost his only food, with hard biscuits and fruit, as the case may be.

Cocoa.—Since the duty has been taken off, this nonrishing drink is so cheap as to be within reach of every one. It may be made by merely pouring boiling water over it; but the following plan is preferable:—if a pint be required, in a clean brass skill or chocolate pot have rather more than a half-pint of water perfectly boiling, or quite cold, into this put a large table-spoonful of rock cocoa, and let it boil quickly till the cocoa is perfectly dissolved, this will take two or three minutes; it should be stirred or milled all the time; then add a table-spoonful of fine moist sugar, and a half-pint of new milk, stir it well for another minute or two, but do not again suffer it to boil. N.B.—The proportions may be varied to suit the taste or the digestive powers of the sick person.

Spoon Meats.—For *Broth and Beef Tea*, see chapter iv. Calf's feet or mutton shanks make mild nourishing broth, but have little richness or flavour of meat. All kinds of feet may be bought very cheap, and the shanks of mutton may sometimes be had for the asking. The high price often paid for a set of calf's feet, is caused by the cleaning, which any notable woman may easily do (at the present time the difference in price is, 1s 6d. cleaned, or 6d. uncleaned, for the four feet); to clean them, have a

kettle of boiling water *on the fire* and throw in the feet all at once, or in succession, as the size of the vessel allows. Let them boil about three minutes, then take one out, when the hoofs and hairs will easily come off; loosen the hoof at the root and turn it back, scrape the hairs, carrying the knife upwards. N.B.—This must be done immediately on taking out of the boiling water, therefore only one at a time must be taken out.

Feet, and all gristly parts, require long boiling, (or baking) and consume a large quantity of water in the process—(see jelly.)

Gruel.—There are two ways of preparing gruel—one from the whole grain, whether oat, barley, or rice; the other from meal. The former is generally preferred as most delicate, and secure from adulteration; the latter is more convenient when wanted quickly. There is no nicer gruel than that made of whole oats, with merely the husks removed, or once flattened by passing through a mill. The former are called whole groats; the latter, cracked, or Embden groats: the fresher they are used the better. If kept at all after being cracked, it should be in a closely-shut vessel, whether glass, earthen, or tin, and in a very dry place. The Einbden groats done up in paper paekets soon become sour. The coarse Seoteh oatmeal, and fine oatmeal, purchased by measure of an honest mealman, are greatly preferable to those called “prepared,” and sold in paper paekets. Whether it is owing to the “preparation” or the mode of keeping, it is hard to obtain from the latter article good well-flavoured gruel.

Groat Gruel.—The whole or cracked groats should be set on with cold water, and a sufficient quantity of it to allow for at least one-third boiling away. It must be frequently stirred, and should not be suffered to boil over. It is not merely the quantity actually spilt that is wasted; but in the early stage of the process the most nourishing part of the grain rises in the form of scum, which afterwards sinks, and

enriches the whole. A quarter-of-a-pint of groats will make one quart of thick gruel, being set on with three pints, and boiled three-quarters of an hour; then strain. The groats may be boiled again with rather more than a pint of water put to them boiling, and will produce nearly another pint of gruel.

Meal Gruel.—On a large spoonful of oatmeal, (either Scotch or fine) mix it very smoothly with two table-spoonfuls of cold water. Stir into a pint of water boiling on the fire. Let it boil briskly ten or fifteen minutes; strain off. For either sort of gruel, a bit of fresh butter and a little salt may be stirred in, or a little sugar and nutmeg.

Rice Gruel—may be made of ground rice just in the same manner. As it is generally ordered when the bowels are in a disordered state, it is of special importance that the rice be perfectly pure, and in good keeping. Persons who often use ground rice will do well to have a mill, and grind it at home as wanted. A stick of cinnamon and a few chips of dried Seville orange peel may be boiled in the gruel for flavour. If rinsed and dried, they will serve two or three times in succession. When strained, sweeten with loaf sugar, and add a grate of nutmeg. N.B.—Rice gruel is sometimes ordered to be made with port wine or brandy, and it is *possible* for a sick person to be in such a state as to render these additions suitable, but they should *never* be used but in cases of emergency, and under medical direction. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, they would do no good, but would probably do great harm. The same remark applies to the use of wine or spirits in arrow-root, or gruel. In ordinary cases, it is best to let them alone. Thick gruel, whether of oat, barley, or rice, may be thinned with new milk, and is a very nourishing and agreeable food, when the particular disorder does not render it unsuitable.

Arrow-Root.—A dessert-spoonful of pure arrow-root will thicken a half-pint of liquid, which may be either water or milk—with water, lemon juice is a

pleasant addition if the state of the bowels will admit—milk may be flavoured with cinnamon. There are two ways of preparing it:—1st. Moisten the arrow-root to a smooth paste with a small quantity of cold liquid, stir it to the remainder as boiling on the fire; less than a minute will thicken it. 2nd. Mix smooth as above, then pour the boiling liquid upon the paste, and stir briskly till it thickens, which, if the article be pure, will be in a minute or two. Loaf sugar to taste, and a grate of nutmeg.

Sago.—Wash the sago in cold water. Set it ou also in cold water; stir it frequently; let it boil from a quarter-of-an-hour to half-an-hour. Two ounces of sago will thicken a pint. It may be flavoured as the other things. If it be intended to use milk, set on the sago at first with less than half the required quantity of water. When the sago has dissolved, and the whole become a thick jelly, stir to it gradually the milk, and let it become thoroughly hot without coming to boil.

Panada.—The thickening part of this is bread—generally the crumb only, but sometimes the upper crust is recommended, especially in bowel-complaints. Stale bread is better than new, but if the crust is to be used, it must be crisp. Crumb should be rubbed through a colander, crust grated. Two table-spoonsful of crumbs will thicken a half-pint of liquid.

Panada should be of a regular consistence resembling jelly. To secure this, two things must be attended to:—First, all the other ingredients, whatever they may be, must fast boil at the moment the bread is added, and continue to do so till the mass sufficiently thickens. Second, it must not be stirred. Unless these rules be observed, it will be broken and watery. The liquid employed may be milk, or beef-tea, or water, with lemon or orange juice, and three or four lumps of loaf sugar; or equal parts of water and white wine, with loaf sugar, and a little grated lemon peel and nutmeg. From three to five minutes' boiling will generally suffice, but it is easy to judge when the mass has assumed a proper appearance.

Tops and Bottoms.—Food for infants.—The best are to be obtained from Lemann's, Threadneedle Street, London. Have on the fire a saucepan containing a quarter-of-a pint of water fast boiling, into which throw one top or bottom. Let it boil five or six minutes without stirring, when the thickening will have dissolved to a pulp, and the whole becomes a jelly free from lumps. Remove from the fire ; add a little salt and sugar, and new milk sufficient to bring it to a proper warmth and thinness. Biscuit-powder may be managed in the same way.

Meat.—For invalids, there is nothing so light and wholesome as a loin mutton chop nicely broiled or toasted ; nearly all the fat should be cut off. The fire should be very clear, alike free from smoke and flame, yet brisk and hot—(see p. 54.) Turn often ; when nearly done, sprinkle a little salt. When both sides are of a fine pale brown, take up on a very hot plate, cover over, and serve instantly. No gravy should be added. Whether or not a morsel of fresh butter may be rubbed on, depends on the state of the sick person. Next to this, a slice from a well-roasted joint is the best thing ; next to that, from a well-boiled joint. The gravy that drips in the dish from either is good, but all made sauces are improper for the use of invalids. Mutton and beef, if tender, are preferable to lamb, veal, and pork. Game is good, provided it be not tainted ; and a young chicken, roast or boiled, makes a pleasant variety, though by no means equal to broiled or roast mutton.

BREAD PUDDING FOR A SICK PERSON.—To one large egg, allow a wine-glassful of milk, a heaped tablespoonful of bread crumbs, a dessert-spoonful of powdered loaf or fine moist sugar, and a grate of nutmeg. Beat up the egg with the sugar and nutmeg. Set the milk on the fire ; when it fast boils, throw in the bread, and let it boil a minute or two. Then stir it boiling hot to the eggs, &c. Have ready a small basin, tea-cup, or gallipot, just the size to contain the whole, and a bit of white rag large enough to tie over it, both smeared with fresh butter ; of

the cloth, only a round in the centre the size of the basin top ; the whole inside of the basin. Have also on the fire a clean tin saucepan or brass skillet with boiling water. The pudding should exactly fill the basin, or it will be watery ; tie it over securely. See that the water boils fast ; put in the pudding ; make it boil up as quickly as possible, and let it boil full twenty-five minutes, but by no means exceed half-an-hour. Have ready a hot plate. Take up the pudding, remove the cloth, turn down the pudding on the hot plate, not removing the cup or basin until it is actually set before the person who is to eat it, which should be less than a minute after it is taken out of the liquor.

A larger pudding may be made on the same proportions, allowing five or six minutes more boiling for each additional egg, till it comes to three-quarters-of-an-hour, which a light bread pudding need never exceed.

JELLIES.—Jellies are reckoned strengthening and nutritious—but too expensive and troublesome to be much adopted in plain families. But a considerable part of the trouble and expense is for the sake of getting the jelly very clear and bright, and with costly flavourings, neither of which are essential to nourishment. A few cheap and simple recipes will here be given, which will be found to answer every really good purpose.

Plain Calf's-foot Jelly.—For each foot allow a quart and half-pint of water ; boil or bake till the liquor is reduced one-half. Then strain and set away to become cold. The bones will yield a nice picking. When the jelly is perfectly cold and stiff, turn it out of the vessel, clear off from the top every particle of fat, which will be useful for pastry, and every particle of sediment from the bottom. This will do for broth or gravy ; but the jelly must be a clear mass from top to bottom. Set it over a clear but not fierce fire. When melted, pour it into cups or small basins ; each to contain as much as is likely

to be used at once. This will keep good several days, and may be eaten by itself cold; or stirred into hot broth, milk, tea, or other liquid; or warmed with flavouring and sweetening to taste.

White Calf's-foot Jelly.—In a deep jar put two calf's feet, a stick of cinnamon, and five or six laurel or bay leaves, with a quart of water, cover close down, and bake two hours and-a-half. Take it out of the oven, clear from the top as much fat as may be. Then add a quart of new milk, close the jar again, and let it bake an hour and-a-half or two hours longer. Then strain into a jug or lip-bason, sweeten with loaf-sugar; let it stand awhile to settle, but before it becomes cold, remove all fat from the top, and pour steadily into tea-cups, leaving the sediment in the larger vessel.

Gloucester Jelly.—Rice, sago, Scotch barley, enigroot, hartshorn shavings, of each one ounce. Boil in three pints of water till reduced to one. Then strain. When cold it will be a very stiff jelly—to be used as plain calf's-feet jelly—in tea, coffee, broth, milk, or any hot liquid.

Isinglass Jelly.—One ounce to a quart of water; (a crust of bread and a stick of cinnamon, or a little shaved lemon or orange-rind, may be added or omitted;) boil till reduced to less than a pint. Strain off, and keep for use plain; or add sugar and lemon-juice, or a little white wine.

Hartshorn Jelly.—Three ounces of hartshorn shavings to three quarts of water; boil till reduced to one pint. May be used plain, or flavoured and enriched at pleasure.

Eggs are light and nutritious, and often useful to invalids, either raw or lightly cooked. They are chiefly mentioned here for the sake of observing, that they are much more wholesome cooked out of the shell than in. A poached egg boiled, or even fried, will often suit the stomach when one boiled in the shell would be unsuitable. This is worth notice.

A raw egg or two beaten up with a little fine sugar

and a grating of nutmeg makes a pleasant and nourishing meal of itself, or with the addition of a little boiled milk stirred to it briskly. Raw eggs, with a glass of spring water, are sometimes useful in a cough, and particularly so in jaundice. Two should be taken in the morning fasting, and one three times a-day besides.

The following is useful in a cough :—One new-laid egg, one table spoonful each of honey, spermaceti in powder, and simple peppermint-water ; mix well, and take a tea-spoonful or more, frequently.

To Poach Eggs.—Have on the fire a frying-pan with water fast boiling, break each egg into a separate cup, slip them carefully in the boiling water ; when the white is quite set the eggs are done. Take them up with a slice, and serve on buttered toast or bread and butter. Fried eggs are done in the same manner, only instead of water a little fat is used, or a rasher of bacon.

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